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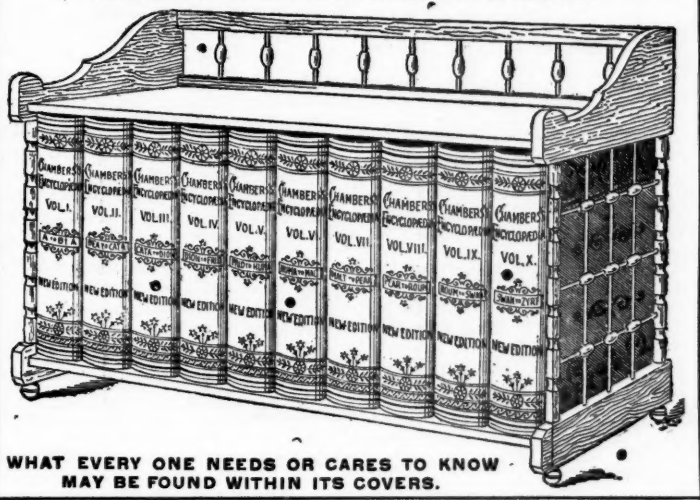
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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 22, 1897.

## The Week.

IN view of the known increase of importations since the Dingley bill was presented, March 15, the returns of this country's foreign trade last month are very interesting. As was expected, imports increased largely over preceding months. Their total for the month of March—\$76,372,831—exceeds by \$17,000,000 the February aggregate, and runs \$25,000,000 over the January record. Last year the March importations fell below those of January—a fact which makes the current showing even more noteworthy. The month's importations rise, in fact, nearly ten millions over those of March, 1896, and eight millions over 1895. They have not been paralleled in that month since the enormous rush of foreign goods this way in the spring of 1893. In any one of the last half-dozen years, except 1892, imports as heavy as last month's would have turned the balance of foreign trade and created a new trade debt for liquidation. But the actual results show that, even with last month's heavily increased importations, its foreign trade resulted in an export balance of \$10,898,700—nearly two millions greater than in the same month a year ago.

In other words, the country's export trade has increased almost as rapidly as its trade in imports. During March our exports rose nearly eight millions over February, and not quite twelve millions over March, 1896. To make the comparison still more striking, it may be added that the export trade last month was the largest ever recorded in this country for the month of March. As a consequence, the already unprecedented excess of exports over imports, for the nine completed months of the fiscal year, has risen now to the stupendous sum of \$323,381,519. Such a trade balance outweighs all other factors in international exchange. It is not, therefore, a matter for surprise that, with foreign exchange on London at all principal Continental points falling so low that export gold is leaving the Bank of England daily, there is hardly a symptom of disturbance in our own sterling market. Part of this very remarkable increase in our export trade is due to continued heavy shipment of the cereals; for although wheat exports for March fell below the average of recent years, exports of corn particularly have trebled any previous record. But the new factor in our foreign trade, export of manufactures, has played an equal part. The detailed Treasury returns for February showed the country's manufactured

exports of that month to be two millions in excess of 1896, and eight millions over 1895. Reckoning on the not wholly unwarranted assumption that such exports will continue at their present average, it has been figured that for the current fiscal year their aggregate will reach \$261,000,000, against \$228,400,000 a year ago, \$158,000,000 in 1893, and only \$102,800,000 seventeen years ago.

The *Chicago Evening Post* denies that the present tariff law produces more revenue than the law which bore McKinley's name, and seems to consider this an imputation on the McKinley tariff. Why it should think so is hard to discover, seeing that the McKinley bill was passed expressly "to reduce the revenue," and that this purpose was declared in the title of the act. The present tariff has not at all times yielded more revenue than the McKinley tariff did, but it yields more under like business conditions. Everybody knows that the revenues of the country are high in good times and low in bad times. We had good times till the panic of 1893. We have had bad times since, as compared with the years immediately preceding. Similar conditions existed only in the last year of the McKinley tariff (1894) and the two following years of the Wilson tariff. The latter went into operation in August, 1894, so one month of the McKinley tariff lapped over on the fiscal year 1895; but that is of trifling consequence. The figures show that the Wilson tariff yielded \$21,000,000 more revenue in its first year and \$29,000,000 more in its second year than the McKinley tariff yielded in its last year.

The *Chicago Evening Post* concludes its statistical achievement with a rhetorical one equally worthless, viz.:

"If there had been no portent of the Wilson-Gorman bill there would have been no panic in 1893, no consequent revenue deficit, no need to issue bonds in time of peace, no addition to the national debt, no resulting 16-to-1 free silver craze, and no chance for the ring of silver Senators to bestride the financial legislation of the country and sandbag a nation of 72,000,000 for the benefit of a few thousand mine owners."

The panic of 1893 took place under the McKinley tariff. Whether it was caused by the portent of something which took place eighteen months later, is a question on which we would rather have the opinion of some slate-writing medium than that of the average Republican editor. As to the statement that the portent of the Wilson-Gorman bill caused "the ring of silver Senators to bestride the financial legislation of the country and sandbag a nation of 72,000,000 for the benefit of a few thousand mine owners," we suppose that reference is made to the passage of the Sherman act, that being the last

financial legislation which the aforesaid silver Senators succeeded in passing. Now this act became a law on the 14th of July, 1890. It took effect, not only long before the "portent" came in sight, but three months before the McKinley act was passed. It was in fact the price paid for the passage of the McKinley act. It could never have passed if the McKinley act had not been pending, nor could the McKinley act have passed unless the Sherman act had passed before it. This explanation was made by Mr. Teller in open Senate, and has never been denied or questioned.

There is every sign that the Senate is preparing to give the country a fresh exhibition of its abilities in the way of intrigue and muddling. Strictly speaking, the Senate is not yet "organized"; rival "steering committees" have been trying to organize it ever since March 4. Senator Gorman appears to be the most expert steerer, having now steered into his combination enough Populists and Free-Silver Republicans to give him a majority, as matters stand. The Republican steerers were disposed to come to his terms, including free-silver control of the finance committee, and so reported on Monday to the Republican caucus. But Bill Chandler was furious. Populists and Free-Silver Republicans bought away from him with committee appointments! He would buy them back again at twice the price, if he had his way. A fine steering committee they must have that had thus steered the party right into the clutches of the enemy. Chandler was for war on the Democrats and for bribing back the Populists to their proper allegiance. Enough Republican Senators thought with him to prevent the acceptance of the committee's report, for the present, at least, and so the ugly snarl continues. As the whole thing makes clear to the Populists and free-silver free lances that they absolutely control the situation, they may be expected to sell their lives dearly. A tariff bill made law by their assent will be a model.

This dubious control of the Senate has apparently brought the labors of the sub-committee on the tariff to a standstill. So, at least, the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent intimates in his pained remarks on the "difficulties" and "perplexities" which beset Messrs. Allison, Aldrich, and Platt. These gentlemen are now "feeling their way with the utmost care." They are reluctantly abandoning their first noble idea of "an ideally successful" tariff, and are now working for one that shall be "practicable" rather than "satisfactory." In other words, the sub-committee is already



"held up," and is now feeling its way to see how much ransom it must pay before being allowed to go on at all. It is confessed that all the main schedules of the tariff are still in dispute, and as far as ever from settlement. It is three weeks since the bill passed the House; the sub-committee has been at work for at least five weeks; yet its members now say that they can bring in no bill at all unless a party caucus gives them orders what to do. Here is financial capacity of the first order. Here is the party of ideas and morals at work framing a revenue bill. With the prospect of this sort of thing going on for three months, with the chance of terrible scandals and raids on the market thrown in, how much relief are our haggard business men likely to get from Congress?

The House bill, if enacted, will be a puzzler. Its opening sentence declares that, on and after May 1, 1897, there shall be levied on all articles imported [when imported] or withdrawn for consumption the rates of duty prescribed therein. "On and after" May 1, 1897! The free list also begins with similar language, but the 27th section declares that all articles imported between April (not May) 1, 1897, "and the date of the passage of this act" shall, with a described exception, "bear the same duty to be charged upon similar articles in this act." The body of the House bill names May 1, but the 27th section names April 1, and marks the character of "similar articles" (not the imported articles) to be the test of the rates. If "household effects" now free, and free till a new law is enacted, shall have been passed as free by the custom-houses but were not ordered before April 1 to be brought hither, are they to be liable to the rates in the new law, and will the Government have a lien on them for the new duties, even if the owner has "no purpose to sell or part with the same"? Is not the date of ordering the articles shipped, whether before or after April 1, to be the test? However that may be, the purpose of the House was to make dutiable well-nigh everything (excepting the effects of a dead citizen) of over \$100 in value. It is important for our countrymen and countrywomen now abroad, or who meditate going abroad, to clearly perceive their fate, carefully study the retroactive clause, and remember what happened on the first day of April.

We are reminded of the existence of the pending treaty of arbitration by receiving a copy of the memorial of Camp Scott, Confederate Veterans, of Minden, Louisiana, representing that these veterans, eighty in number, "having intimately known the actualities of war and forcibly realizing its evils," respectfully ask to be heard "as an authority against it as a method of settling disputes be-

tween peoples." They say that "the recent proffer by a powerful kindred nation to substitute, in the adjustment of international differences, the arbitrament of a calm and disinterested mediatory tribunal for the inflamed passions of partisan popular prejudice, offers an opportunity of inaugurating a rational and radical revolution of international procedure which, if now repulsed, may never recur." They therefore ask the Senate of the United States to ratify the treaty, and conclude by saying that as they have accepted in good faith the result of the civil war, they now ask for clemency, not for themselves, but for the generations of both sections who are to come after them. When we compare the tone of this simple and solemn memorial with the vapors of Senator Morgan and the majority of his Southern colleagues who are so busy hurling defiance around the world, we wonder more than ever how long a form of government can last in which the brave and sincere are represented in Congress mainly by bullies and blatherskites.

The qualifications of three or four hundred men chosen by universal suffrage and the boss system to undertake large business affairs, received a fresh illustration when Congress threw over the Bethlehem and Carnegie steel works for the supply of armor plate for the new battle-ships, and virtually ordered contracts to be made with the Illinois Steel Company at a much lower price than the Bethlehem and Carnegie companies charged. When the bids came to be opened under the new law, it was found that the Illinois Steel Company's bid was coupled with certain conditions for work in future years which the department could not lawfully accept, and ought not to accept even if it were lawful to do so. If a business firm were building these battle-ships and were under the necessity of having the armor at a certain time, it would make a contract with steel works that could supply the material. This might be done now by merely repealing the law of the last session which limits the price, and authorizing the Navy Department to reject bids if deemed too high. But that policy cannot be pursued because it would open the doors of the House for other legislation than the precious tariff. So Bill Chandler introduces a measure in the Senate for seizing the Bethlehem and Carnegie armor-plate works, operating them on Government account for a year or two, and then handing them back to the owners and letting them sue the United States in the Court of Claims for damages. He promises that the Congress which may be in power when the case is decided shall pay the bill.

Congress is doing so many queer things nowadays that Chandler's bill does not seem so very malapropos as it might have seemed at other times. When the House votes, without debate, to seize property

for taxes after they have been paid and a receipt has been given for them and the property itself has been sold, it does not seem so very startling to seize private factories and furnaces in time of peace and hold them against the will of the owners. Yet old-fashioned people will ask the question, under what kind of authority Chandler proposes to act—since Congress itself cannot act without authority. Chandler plants himself on the clause of the Constitution which says that "private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation," from which he infers that it may be taken with just compensation. But this same clause says that such property shall not be taken "without due process of law." An act of Congress is not due process of law. Due process in such a case is technically known as expropriation or condemnation. It requires certain formal steps under the authority of a court to determine the value of the property and to pass the title to the Government or the corporation which is vested with the power of eminent domain. It requires also that the payment shall be contemporaneous with the transfer. There is no law of eminent domain for taking private property for a limited time, and then handing it back to the owner, nor for taking it and telling the owner to sue you for his money, and get it if some future Congress shall see fit to pay it.

Albany is only one political centre where the spoilsmen are perfectly reckless in their attempts to break down all the reform measures already adopted. There is a strong movement in the Illinois Legislature to repeal the law passed by the last Legislature, under which the merit system has been applied to the municipal service of Chicago. The Legislature is Republican, and the newly elected Mayor of Chicago is a Democrat; yet the Republican State machine favors the repeal, so close is the community of interest between the professional politicians of both parties. The movement to secure from the Republican Legislature of Pennsylvania the reform measures to which the party is pledged, has broken down, and the party "workers" of Philadelphia, in their various ward associations, are passing resolutions against the whole merit system, on the grounds that it is establishing "an aristocracy of office-holders," that it is "a bureaucracy similar to that existing in China," and that "the removal of public office and place as an incentive for political labor constitutes a grave menace to the purity of elections, in that corruption must be resorted to in order to secure the active efforts of citizens in partisan politics," etc. On Thursday a delegation representing the League of Republican Clubs, and announcing themselves as spokesmen for more than a million Republican voters, "embracing the younger and more active element of the party, who had largely contributed to the success of

the national ticket last November," appealed to President McKinley to revoke the orders of President Cleveland by which about 40,000 offices were brought under the rules last year. In short, there seem no bounds to the insolence of the spoilsmen all over the country.

Chicago's new mayor has announced his policy regarding the places under the civil-service law, which he evidently does not expect that the Legislature will repeal. There has been great and just complaint among the Democrats that the Republican mayor who was in office when the law went into effect, filled all the offices with partisan appointees before the day when the competitive system was to go into effect. Mayor Harrison says that he will keep his campaign pledges, and "turn the rascals out" after this fashion:

"All the partisan appointees of the Swift administration, all those who were shoved into places without passing a civil-service examination, will be dropped into La Salle Street some fine morning, with no blanket to cover them. Their places will have to be filled under the civil-service law, for I am not greater than the law. If I violated the law, the Republican Attorney-General might pick me up by the collar, and I might be fined, imprisoned, and impeached."

Nobody can find much fault with this. If the present incumbents are men who would have been entitled to their places under the competitive examination which they ought to have undergone originally, they will stand far the best chance of recovering them under such a test now. So long as Mr. Harrison will enforce the law in filling vacancies thus made, the partisans who were "shoved into places" against the spirit of the law will not command much sympathy.

It is unfortunate for Gov. Black that Lou Payn should appear openly as the real author of his civil-service-losing bill. When the Governor appointed Payn, it was said in extenuation of the act, by persons with muddy moral perceptions, that he really had to do it, because Payn had got him the nomination for Governor and had asked for this office as his reward. It was declared to be uncharitable to say that the Governor's standard of official conduct must be judged by this appointment, and it was predicted that, having paid off his debt to Payn, he would so discharge the duties of his office as to completely wipe away this blemish upon his career at its opening. If now he carries out Payn's wishes in regard to the utter demoralization of the civil service of the State, turning it over to the possession of spoilsmen, will it not be said that Payn is still his master, that he has not yet paid off in full his debt to the man who nominated him? Payn has steadily maintained in public, from the time the Governor took office, that he "owned" the Governor. He has come to this city to see Platt as the recognized spokesman for

the Governor, and he habitually has access to the Executive Chamber in preference to everybody else. It would be extremely humiliating to sit in the Governor's chair as the agent of Tom Platt, but to sit there also as the personal property of Lou Payn would be a good deal worse.

Lauterbach's frank confession that he and his Platt associates would rather see a Tammany man elected Mayor than have a non-partisan succeed in getting that office, ought not to surprise anybody who has followed the political career of this remarkable local leader. In fact, nothing ought to surprise anybody in a man who is capable of saying virtually to his followers: We shall be tempted to support an honest man for Mayor, but we must shun the temptation. It was Lauterbach who managed the rotten enrolment of 1895, in which 534 members of Tammany Hall were enrolled as Republicans in twelve Assembly districts, an average of over 44 to a district. It is Lauterbach who has been able to keep his son in a snug "place" in the District Attorney's office, under a Tammany District Attorney and under a Republican District Attorney. He is the ideal leader for the Platt system of government, which is not in any sense a political system, but a spoils and boodle-hunting expedition. He has worked hand-in-glove with Tammany always, and is merely continuing on the old lines now. The only marvel about him and his business is that so many Republicans who are honest men will consent to follow his leadership, and to recognize his nominees as representing their party.

The recent State election in Michigan was not of much importance as regards the minor offices at stake, but it had one feature which is of great significance. The regular Democratic convention was controlled by the Bryan element in the party, which stood on the free-silver platform adopted at Chicago last year. The sound-money men resolved not to support a ticket thus nominated, and named candidates who believed in the principles asserted at Indianapolis when Palmer and Buckner were put in the field. The full official returns of the election have not yet been announced, but enough is known to show that the National Democratic ticket polled at least 30,000 votes. This is a great surprise to all the politicians, as even the most sanguine Sound-Money Democrats did not expect anything like so large a total. Palmer and Buckner received less than 7,000 votes last fall, and some who were prominent in the movement then doubted the wisdom of running a separate ticket in the spring election, not only because it must widen the breach in the party, but also because they feared that such candidates would receive small support. The Sound-Money Democrats who insisted upon carrying through the movement are more than

satisfied with the result. A vote of 30,000 in a spring election gives promise of twice that number in a vigorous fall campaign, and this means that the independent Democrats may hold the balance of power in Michigan. It certainly shows that a Bryanized party will stand no chance whatever of carrying the State, while an organized movement of this sort furnishes a base of operations for the reconstruction of Democracy on its traditional principles.

Japan's action in going over to the gold standard has caused great searching of heart among the English bimetallicists. The explanation given by their organ, the *Bimetallist*, illustrates Jowett's famous assertion that logic is neither a science nor an art, but a dodge. Japan was enjoying tremendous advantages from the silver standard; everybody knew that except the Japanese. Hence the gold standard will be seriously weakened by the accession of a nation that does not know its own true interest. How long can a standard endure which only foolish peoples adopt? On the other hand, the silver standard becomes all the more convincing and inevitable as its adherents become reduced in numbers and more than ever certain that they are right. This is brave reasoning, but the *Bimetallist* itself distrusts it, for it finally blurts out the real reason for Japan's change, which is that she wants to negotiate a loan in Europe and could not do it on the silver standard. There is nothing like trying to secure a loan to show you what the basis of credit is. And the loaning class is so suspicious and sceptical. Here is the Argentine Republic coming out with a flourish to announce that it is going to resume payment of interest on its public debt a full year before it had agreed to. How is this noble action viewed by the moneyed class of England? In a way to make one blush for human nature. The *Economist* coldly remarks:

"If the Government were in possession of the necessary funds for this purpose, the decision at which they have arrived would be satisfactory to the bondholders and creditable to themselves; but as they are certainly not in that position, it is scarcely to be wondered at that the announcement has been regarded as a preliminary either to a new loan or to some other financial operation."

The war between Greece and Turkey has begun with a series of engagements by sea and land, which cover points on the Aegean and Ionian Seas, and along the intermediate border. It is idle to attempt to forecast the result of a conflict in which the issue must depend upon so many factors besides the forces of the two nations who have begun it. The Turkish army is superior to the Grecian; though how much can be spared for offensive operations is a question. On the other hand, the Greeks have some good ships, and the Turkish seacoast, especially in Asia, is very poorly defended.



## THE WAR IN THE EAST.

THE outbreak of hostilities between Greece and Turkey has come, as most people believed it would, without any actual declaration of war in the ordinary sense. Fighting, occasioned by an invasion of Turkey by Greek irregulars, led probably, in many cases, by regular officers, went on for some days before Turkey declared that a state of war existed, throwing the blame on Greece.

As to responsibility for the war, there are really two different questions; one is, Who is morally responsible for the state of things which have led to the conflict? And here the responsibility goes back, no matter how we approach it, to the curious combination known as the Concert. Ever since the Treaty of Berlin, it has been in the power of the six leading nations of Europe to agree upon some policy which would settle the Eastern question. But nothing has been done. The provisions of the Berlin Treaty, and the separate convention made at the same time in connection with it between England and Turkey, have never been carried out. By article xxiii., Cretan reforms were promised, but the Cretan complaint is that, though Turkey undertook to introduce such reforms as should be "adjudged equitable," nothing but promises has been given from that time to this, and nothing but promises will be given, because Turkish reforms are never carried into effect except by the strong arm of European intervention, and that intervention does not come. They say, therefore, that unless the Turkish army withdraws and Crete is annexed to Greece, there is no reason for supposing that effective reforms will ever be introduced, or that the island can be pacified. The only reply made by the Powers to this was to blockade Crete, to threaten to blockade Athens, and to talk vaguely about getting new promises of autonomy from Turkey.

By article lxi. the Porte promised "to realize without delay those ameliorations and reforms which local needs require in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and guarantee their security against the Circassians and Kurds." The Powers agreed by the same article to "watch" over the application of these reforms. By the separate convention with England, Turkey handed over Cyprus to England as a pledge for their execution. Not only have they never been carried out, but what Europe has had to watch has been wholesale massacres of Armenians, part of an organized attempt at extermination by the Kurds, against whom they were to be protected, almost under the open orders of the Sultan. This had a direct effect in bringing on the war, because it helped to convince everybody that the Powers did not mean to make Turkey carry out the reforms of the Berlin Treaty, and that their concert was being used, through the fear of war, as a means of bullying all the Christians in the East into submission to

Turkey, and of inducing England to connive at a situation which every day made more unendurable.

These facts deprive the ordinary question, Who is responsible for the actual hostilities? of almost all the importance that it ordinarily has. If Greece and Turkey were two powerful countries, like Germany and France, completely able to control their destinies, it would mean much, as it did mean in 1870, whether civilized public opinion believed that Germany or France was the "aggressor." But Turkey and Greece both exist by the sufferance of Europe, and the drift of the whole Eastern question is determined by the action of the Powers. They have driven Greece into a war which, if they had not made waste paper of the Berlin Treaty, would have been wholly unnecessary. The result has been that Greece, though no doubt the aggressor in the ordinary sense, has put Turkey and the Powers wholly in the wrong. The idea suggested just before the outbreak, that Greece, if the aggressor, could reap no reward from the conflict, is a matter wholly beyond the control of the Concert. There are at least three Powers which could never consent to Turkey reaping any reward either, and that the war will end with re-establishing the *status quo* of the Berlin Treaty is out of the question. The fighting on the Gulf of Arta on Sunday at Prevesa is said to have involved territory forfeited by the Turks in actual contravention of the Berlin Treaty.

The English Government has put its country in a position which can, in American eyes, seem only a great misfortune. The Tories, who, with their enormous majority in the House of Commons, are for the time able to do what they please, seem bent on proving that the picture drawn of England's attitude towards the rest of the world by the American Jingo is true. While they encourage the bullying of a little defenceless Christian island in the Mediterranean with all their ships, and threaten Greece, they cringe before Russia, and break their own promises to gratify a murderous Asiatic tyrant, who, under the cover of their inaction, revives the horrors of the Middle Ages for them to "watch over." But we know that in all this the English Government does not represent the English people. The majority which Lord Salisbury is employing for these purposes he got through the division of the country on "home rule," and the English electorate no more meant to give him a mandate to uphold the policy of the Concert than we did, in defeating Bryan, to authorize the passage of the Dingley bill.

## THE EUROPEAN PROTESTS.

THERE is great difficulty in getting from Washington any information as to what is going on with regard to the foreign protests against the Dingley bill filed with our Government. When inquiry is made

at the State Department, the inquirer is told that all protests have been sent to the Senate sub-committee on finance, and that they have not been and will not be made public. The Senate sub-committee holds secret sessions only. Protectionists all profess to believe that foreign remonstrances from any quarter help the Dingley bill, the argument being that the foreigner cries out because he is hurt—what hurts him helps us—and hence his outcries prove that the Dingley bill ought to be passed with all speed. This argument might do if it were possible to keep the nature and origin of the protests entirely secret until the bill were passed, but the difficulty is that the whole story must come out sooner or later.

We have treaties with many foreign nations providing that no higher duties shall be imposed on the importation into the United States of any article coming from them, and vice versa, than are or shall be payable on the like article coming from any other country. (Treaty with Prussia May 1, 1828, art. v.; treaty with Austria, August 27, 1829, art. v.; treaty with Italy, February 26, 1871, art. vi.) This is called the "most-favored-nation clause." The only object of any such treaty is, of course, to put both nations on the same footing, so that, for instance, imports of any product of Germany into the United States, and of any product of the United States into Germany, shall not be discouraged by discrimination through a lower duty on the like article from some other country. It is a provision against international injustice and inequality. There is a treaty with the Netherlands, into the details of which it is not necessary to go here; there is no "favored-nation clause" in our treaty with France. With Peru and Chili, and probably most of the other Central and South American States, we have treaties embodying a sweeping "most-favored-nation" clause. Speaking generally, it has been our commercial policy to prevent discrimination in our tariffs, in order that there may be no discrimination against us in foreign tariffs.

The protests against the Dingley bill thus far filed are based upon the idea that we are abandoning this policy, notwithstanding our treaties, and that the way to meet this action on our part is for the various European Governments to lay their duties so as to keep out American products whenever possible. An examination of all the details here is not necessary; the protests involve an arraignment of the Dingley bill as constructed in violation of treaty rights, and a threat of a "tariff war" against every producer and exporter in the United States who can be reached.

The German protest was correctly given in the *Staats-Zeitung* of this city on April 8. The German Ambassador's note to the Secretary of State bears the date of April 5, and was written under telegraphic instructions from Berlin. It lays



stress on the fact that the United States Government recognized the validity of a previous protest in 1894, by Mr. Gresham's report to the President of October 12, 1894, and the President's annual message to Congress, December, 1894, and threatens retaliation. The Austrian Minister has received instructions to protest in the same way as the German Ambassador, on the ground of the Austro-American treaty of 1829, article 5. Italy has made representations on account of the proposed duties on fruits. The Netherlands have filed a general protest saying that if the United States virtually exclude the few articles now exported from Holland and the Dutch colonies, the Netherlands will have no more interest in commercial intercourse with the United States, and the latter will have to bear the consequences. In France, as stated above, the United States do not enjoy the rights of the most favored nation. France can retaliate at any time and in any way without giving previous notice. As to South and Central America, all the representatives of these republics have pledged themselves to dissuade their respective Governments against entering into any reciprocity negotiations with the United States, the inducements of the Dingley bill being inadequate for such purpose.

An instance is better than any number of generalities. The business of importing beet-sugar into this country is a very considerable one; it amounted in 1895-6 to 604,686,985 pounds, valued at \$14,048,914. It comes mostly from Germany. It is now proposed by patriots who worked tooth and nail for the Grand Old Party last year, to keep this all out in order to establish the beet-sugar industry here; and to carry out this design the Dingley bill not only adds to the duty whatever export bounty is allowed abroad (which is the existing system), but makes the duty so high as to be, with this addition, prohibitive, or nearly so. Of course, this will stop the imports, and the German protest is founded on the idea that in doing this we violate the most-favored-nation clause, because we make the duty on German sugar actually higher than that on other sugar of the same kind from other countries. To this our reply is that the law does not make any discrimination against German sugar as such, and that it is Germany's misfortune, not our fault, if she chooses to pay an export bounty. This answer may be valid in point of law; but the Germans care nothing about that. They have just as much right to pay export bounties as we have to lay import duties, and they have made up their minds that they will take a leaf out of our book. It is accordingly proposed to make a discrimination against American petroleum, and let in Russian petroleum to Germany instead. This is what the German protest means. Of illuminating oil we exported in 1895-96, 716,455,585 gallons, worth \$48,630,920, chiefly from New

York and Philadelphia. The Standard Oil Company and the Pennsylvania Railroad are, of course, not doing anything about it. It makes no difference to Mr. Rockefeller and Mr. Thomson and the stockholders of the great petroleum-carrying roads whether they sell and transport \$50,000,000 worth of oil a year or not. They are not pulling all the wires they can to get Quay and Penrose to cut out the beet-sugar schedule. Oh, no, not by any means. They rather like it, for they know that whatever hurts the foreigner helps them, and they are accordingly working hard to get the law passed which will ruin their own business and build up a glorious future for one which has no existence. Apply this illustration to half the export business of the country, and the enthusiasm for Dingley and his bill, which is now spreading like wildfire, is understood. If all the persons who are in the plight of Messrs. Rockefeller and Thomson would come out boldly and speak their minds, what an uproar of jubilation there would be!

#### WHY THE TARIFF BILL OFFENDS.

THE Republican leaders at Washington, from the President down, are reported to be greatly surprised at the outcry against the Dingley bill. They looked for nothing of the sort. With Democratic opposition in the House only perfunctory and feeble, why should the country be so indignant? No tariff ever proposed has, in fact, had so much popular vituperation heaped upon it. Leading Republicans of the non-official class have said in various parts of the country that the Dingley bill not merely will make their localities Democratic, but will make themselves, for the time being, Democratic. One of the foremost Republican business men of the Northwest goes to Washington and tells the Republican Senators that the bill is "the worst he ever heard of." These things pain Mr. Dingley and Mr. McKinley, and astound them. Tariff bills used not to give such deep offence; why should there be this sudden difference?

One reason is that no tariff bill can any longer be passed in the old hole-and-corner fashion. The discussions of the past twelve years have at least done good to this extent—that the people now know the tariff to be a tax that affects them powerfully. It was once possible for tariff-makers to assume an air of lofty superiority. The plain people could not understand those deep mysteries. Just trust the ways and means committee and their experts, take and spend the revenue which they provide, and meddle no further in things too wonderful for the average mind. But this is all past now. Every schedule, every clause, is to-day eagerly scrutinized, the reason demanded for every change, the effect of every change demonstrated. There are now more and better tariff experts outside Congress than in it. Mr. Dingley may come

in with his report asserting great moderation, and with his misleading percentages, but men better informed than he at once show that one of his moderate taxes amounts to 600 per cent. on the valuation, another to 350, and so on. The fact is that the success of protective tariffs depends upon the secrecy with which they can be framed and the concealed nature of their operation. It was the younger Pitt, we believe, who said that a protective tax was the most ingenious means of robbing a nation, without its knowledge, ever invented. But the nation is no longer in ignorance as to this matter. It has learned that a protective tax is a tax which it has to pay like any other, and it is getting to be as suspicious and angry about unjust tariff taxation as about any other kind.

But there are special reasons why the Dingley bill has given deep offence. One of them is that it is, on its face, a bill of false pretences: it professes to be a revenue bill, it is really a measure of class legislation. From the very first its failure as a revenue bill was admitted by the *Tribune*; every day that has passed has made that failure more probable and disastrous. In fact, all talk about the bill as a revenue measure has now ceased to be heard at Washington. It is all a struggle of conflicting interests to see what part of the largess each can get. The representatives of particular industries are becoming more and more impatient at the idea that any goods competing with them shall be imported at all. Revenue at their expense? Perish the thought! Let some other fellow's product suffer the rivalry of imports for the sake of the Treasury, but keep your hands off ours, if you want this bill to pass at all. Thus the extra session to raise revenue has already degenerated into a greedy scramble of tariff beneficiaries to raise the wind. This is one of the things that fill the public mind with disgust at the proceedings in Congress.

There is, however, yet a deeper violation of good faith in the tariff enormities now proposed. They run distinctly counter to pledges solemnly given in the last campaign. It is all folly to point now to the general protection plank in the Republican platform. That was drawn before the silver storm broke on the country. Casting about, as the Republican managers had to, for help in their hour of supreme peril, they invited the aid of Sound-Money Democrats. In accepting it they gave not only tacit but explicit promises that their main aim was to save the gold standard, and that their tariff, if they ever made one, would be very conservative. Mr. Charles Stewart Smith has asserted under his signature that such promises were freely made in this part of the country. Unluckily, it appears now that Mr. Hanna was all things to all men, and made directly opposite promises to the Rocky Mountain Senators. He seems to have promised

anything wanted. But the great fact remains that the whole assumption and conduct of the campaign involved the abandonment of any high-protection aims that the party may have cherished. This is what makes the speedy production of the most outrageous tariff ever known seem so distinctly an act of bad faith.

Finally, the Dingley tariff arouses keen dissatisfaction because it threatens to throw away, wantonly and wickedly, all the country fought for and thought it won last November. The course and logic of the Administration are a complete inversion of the course and logic of the campaign. In that the tariff dropped more and more out of sight; an honest and rational system of currency became more and more clearly the sole issue. Now it is the currency issue which is dropping out of sight. All the flush and fervor of the election is lost in a disgusting exhibition of mercenary greed. It will be hard, if not impossible, for Mr. McKinley hereafter to allege the authority of the people in urging a reform of the currency. He has put tariff and the further demoralization of the currency at the forefront; and if he returns to his true mandate later, it will appear to be only as a grudging afterthought. The promise and the opportunity of the last campaign have been largely thrown away; and it is no wonder that intense enmity has been aroused by the tariff bill which, besides being vicious in itself, has done so much to wreck fair hopes.

#### VICTIMS OF EDUCATION.

THE teaching of English in schools has been much debated of late both in England and in this country. Mr. J. Churton Collins had a paper on the subject in the *Academy* last January, which is certainly suggestive, though not alone in the way in which he intended it to be. He complained sharply of the "extraordinary farrago" which passes for the assigned English in even the best schools. What he would have is a systematic study of English literature. Begin by dividing school-life—averaging from the ages of ten to seventeen—into three periods, the elementary, the middle, the advanced, and fit to each its proper "stage" of teaching in English. "Suddenly to plunge a boy or girl into a play of Shakspeare or a book of Spenser," is little short of criminal in Mr. Collins's eyes. First must come the "foundation of the historical study of the subject"; a clear idea of the "evolution" of English literature must next be implanted, the "epochs" mastered, and the "eras" grasped. Then may come reading, getting the "gems" by heart, so leading up skilfully to grammar, syntax, and etymology, and "certainly the elements of Anglo-Saxon." "The pupil," explains Mr. Collins, "would now be past or bordering upon fifteen." What prodigies of learning he reserves for the two remain-

ing years of preparatory school-life, we leave the reader to imagine.

Now we have not a word to say against this scheme of teaching English. Mr. Collins is an expert in his subject, and we are dumb before him. But we beg to observe that all the other specialists have their own exact little divisions of school-life into periods just suited for their subjects. They are as impatient as he at the fragmentary teaching which gives children such confused notions of Latin and Greek and French and German and science and mathematics. Experts in each of these branches want to block out a course in it from ten to seventeen, just as Mr. Collins does. They, too, have their stages and their evolution, their epochs and their eras. They, too, are authorities in their spheres, and who are we that we should gainsay them? We dare not; but we do venture to ask what is to become of the poor children under this combined assault of the educational systematizers and experts.

Every interest or study seems to have a spokesman in these discussions of education, except those who are to be educated. No one thinks, apparently, of consulting the scholars. They are simply a *corpus vile* for the educational experimenter. Less fortunate than the animals in the French fable, they are not even given the option of the way in which they will be killed; to suggest that they do not want to be killed at all is a frivolous wandering from the point. The experiment is the main thing. Can the historical foundation and the stages be crammed into the years from ten to seventeen? That is the question, and whether school-children are choked and stunted and sterilized in the process you must not ask if you are a sincere friend of education. All you are entitled to do is to mutter under your breath, when your harried children escape, confused in mind and ill in body, from the hands of educational enthusiasts, "Well, Jowett was not so far wrong when he called education the grave of the mind."

Happily, the average boy and girl is tough, and may defy the experts to do their worst. A ludicrous oversight of many educational theorists lies in ignoring this fact. Bagehot chuckled, in his time, over the way in which "that apple-eating animal which we call a boy" would foil his educators, and bring away from long years of wrestling with the classics little more than a firm conviction that there were such languages as Latin and Greek. To apples we may now add football and baseball and bicycles, and with all these reinforcements the modern boy may hold his own with the modern educator. The specialists may crowd more and more of their subjects into the curriculum of schools; the average boy merely produces new varieties of humor in the way of examination papers, and goes on his athletic way rejoicing. He simply will not take the thing seriously.

At the end of his school-life he, for his part, would be perfectly willing to bring in a bill against his teachers, as the young Englishwoman did against the elderly gentleman to fit herself to marry whom she had in vain undertaken a course of education, "To loss of time in improving my mind, £52 10s."

But the real victims of education are not to be found among average boys and girls. It is upon the exceptionally delicate and sensitive and conscientious that high-pressure schools and bewildering multiplicity of studies work their real evil. How much of dulled interest, of nervous collapse, of utter repulsion at the sight of books, of despairing effort to keep up the pace, of vague sense of wrong and injustice have they been responsible for! The great cause of the mischief is, we believe, the eager competition of the specialists to get their subjects, and the whole of their subjects, into the school courses of study. But mortal capacity, child-capacity, has its limits. Children do not live by foundations alone, or by epochs and eras heaped upon them from all sides. Those whom no education can harm, as none can benefit, emerge from the process uninjured, but the rush and crowding and strain are cruel to the finer natures.

#### JEFFERSON AND THE TAX ON KNOWLEDGE.

BRUNSWICK, ME., April 14, 1897.

ON December 10, 1821, Hugh Nelson of Virginia presented in the House of Representatives a petition from the "Rector and Visitors of the University of Virginia," praying "that the aid and patronage of Congress may be extended to the cause of science and literature generally, throughout the United States, by an exemption from duties of all books and other articles generally used in acquiring information." The petition was signed by Thomas Jefferson as Rector, and bears date of November 30, 1821; its main arguments, however, and much of its phraseology, had already been incorporated in a letter of Jefferson, dated September 28, to an unnamed correspondent (*Works*, Cong. Ed., vii., 220-222), in which a concerted appeal by colleges and other institutions of learning for the removal of the duty then imposed upon books had been suggested. The petition, which is of considerable length, begins by reciting the fact that the tariff on books is "peculiarly inauspicious" to the development of institutions such as the University of Virginia, lately established, and continues:

"That at an early period of the present Government, when our country was burdened with a heavy debt, contracted in the war of Independence, and its resources for revenue were untried and uncertain, the National Legislature thought it as yet inexpedient to indulge in scruples as to the subjects of taxation, and, among others, imposed a duty on books imported from abroad, which has been continued, and now is, of fifteen per cent., on their prime cost, raised by ordinary custom-house charges to eighteen per cent., and by the importers' profits to perhaps twenty-five per cent., and more.

"That, after many years' experience, it is certainly found that the reprinting of books in the United States is confined chiefly to those in our native language, and of popular cha-



acters, and to cheap editions of a few of the classics for the use of schools; while the valuable editions of the classical authors, even learned works in the English language, and books in all foreign living languages (vehicles of the important discoveries and improvements in science and the arts, which are daily advancing the interest and happiness of other nations), are unprinted here, and unobtainable from abroad but under the burden of a heavy duty.

"That the difficulty resulting from this mode of procuring books of the first order in the sciences, and in foreign languages, ancient and modern, is an unfair impediment to the American student, who, for want of these aids, already possessed or easily procurable in all countries except our own, enters on his course with very unequal means, with wants unknown to his foreign competitors, and often with that imperfect result which subjects us to reproaches not unfelt by minds alive to the honor and mortified sensibilities of their country.

"That, to obstruct the acquisition of books from abroad, as an encouragement of the progress of literature at home, is burying the fountain to increase the flow of its waters. . . .

"That books . . . are capital, often the only capital of professional men on their outset in life, and of students destined for professions.

"That this is the only form of capital on which a tax of from eighteen to twenty-five per cent. is first levied on the gross, and the proprietor then subject to all other taxes in detail, as those holding capitals in other forms, on which no such extra tax has been previously levied."

The memorial concludes by praying,

"that Congress will be pleased to bestow on this important subject the attention it merits, and give the proper relief to the candidates of science among ourselves, devoting themselves to the laudable object of qualifying themselves to become the instructors and benefactors of their fellow-citizens."

This petition was referred to the committee of ways and means, and does not seem to have been taken up again; but there is evidence, apparently, that Jefferson's proposal of joint action was well received, in the presentation in the House, on December 27, by Benjamin Gorham of Massachusetts, of "a memorial of divers colleges and literary and scientific societies, within the United States, praying that all printed books, which may hereafter be imported into the United States, may be exempted from the payment of duties." This, also, was referred to the committee of ways and means.

The discussion was now transferred to the Senate. On the same day that Gorham presented the above memorial in the House, Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, submitted to the Senate the "memorial of the Transylvania University, in the State of Kentucky, praying the repeal of the duty on books imported into the United States." The memorial was referred to the committee on finance, consisting of John Holmes of Maine, John H. Eaton of Tennessee, Nathaniel Macon of North Carolina, Martin Van Buren of New York, and Walter Lowrie of Pennsylvania; on January 8, 1822, this committee made, through its chairman, Holmes, an elaborate adverse report. After noting the fact that the tariff act of April 27, 1816, then in force, included books among the unenumerated articles at a duty of 15 per cent. ad valorem, but that books, scientific apparatus, etc., imported for the use of educational institutions and learned societies, were admitted free; that the growth of the printing industry in the United States had been rapid, but that it would be "unequal, impolitic, and unjust to single out this important branch of industry, strip it of all protection, and leave it to struggle with powerful competitors, to its serious embar-

assment and probable destruction," the report says:

"The inquiry, then, is, What portion of the community requires this repeal? Every college, academy, and other seminary, and every corporation for literary purposes, is now exempt. All members and students of these institutions are, consequently, exonerated of the burden of this tax. The question recurs, Who is to experience the benefit of the exemption? Surely not the instructors, nor students in the higher branches of literature; for they are already relieved. Certainly not the members of our common schools; for ordinary British editions are compensated by a bounty. American school-books are plenty and cheap, and those in foreign languages are not required for general use; and it is equally certain that our manufactories forbid it, and our Treasury can scarcely afford it. None, then, but the professional gentleman, who can afford to extend his library beyond the resources of American publishers, or the scholar of wealth and leisure, who would indulge his taste in selecting the most elegant and expensive editions of foreign authors, can be interested in its favor. And is it expedient at this time to interpose this relief? To tax foreign luxuries is a dictate of the soundest policy. Expensive and highly finished editions are as much a luxury as any other extravagant expenditure. A moderate duty on such books, to be limited almost exclusively to gentlemen of wealth, could never subject us to the imputation of an indifference to education. Few nations, perhaps, have done more for the diffusion of knowledge.

"With few exceptions, the English is our native and ordinary language. It is spoken as universally and purely as in England itself. But lately, we were a part of the British Empire. From thence we have derived many of our habits, customs, and laws. We still esteem Great Britain as eminent in arts, sciences, policy, and power. Our principal and subordinate seminaries of learning are chiefly furnished with British books, and our youth are taught by British authors, wedded to their own institutions, and exultingly proud of their country, constitution, and laws. These means of a foreign influence have long been perceived, and have excited the jealousy of grave and intelligent politicians. Our Government is peculiar to ourselves, and our books of instruction should be adapted to the nature of the Government and the genius of the people. In the best of foreign books we are liable to meet with criticisms and comparisons not very flattering to the American people. In American editions of these, the offensive or illiberal parts are expunged or explained, and the work is adapted to the exigencies and taste of an American reader. But withdraw the protection which our tariff affords, our channels of instruction will be foreign, our youth will imbibe sentiments, form attachments, and acquire habits of thinking adverse to our prosperity, unfriendly to our Government, and dangerous to our liberties."

In spite of this adverse report, however, the matter was not allowed to drop at once, for on the following day, January 9, Senator Harrison Gray Otis of Massachusetts came forward with a resolution calling upon the Secretary of the Treasury for "a return of the net amount of duties collected annually for the last five years upon the importation of books, distinguishing, so far as it can conveniently be done, the amount accruing upon books printed in foreign languages." The report was not sent to the Senate until April 2, followed, two days later, by a substitute report; the end of the session was approaching, however, and no action on the report appears to have been taken. On January 15, Senator Mahlon Dickerson of New Jersey followed Otis with a petition of the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, setting forth

"That in some of the custom-houses of the United States, this statute [of 1816] has been so construed that books sent as presents to philosophical institutions, or by way of exchange for the memoirs, transactions, and other products of their gratuitous labors, have been considered as liable to duty, and

the duty has in fact been exacted, and has been paid in some instances by your memorialists—that, under this construction, learned societies can derive but little benefit from the enactment made in their favor, as they are not in general rich enough to import many books in the way of purchase; the greatest part of what they receive from abroad being by way of donation or exchange."

The memorialists therefore prayed for the free entry of books received in exchange, and also, if possible, of books in manuscript and in foreign languages. Accompanying the petition was a statement showing the usage of various European countries in regard to the importation of books. The petition and schedule were ordered printed, though not without opposition from Lowrie and others. The report of the committee on finance was considered in the Senate on January 26, and February 14, and February 23, being finally, on motion of Eaton, laid on the table.

So far as Jefferson was concerned, the matter seems to have been laid aside for some three years. On February 4, 1824, however, he wrote to Jared Sparks:

"I am much pleased to see that you have taken up the subject of the duty on imported books. I hope a crusade will be kept up against it until those in power shall become sensible of this stain on our legislation, and shall wipe it from their code, and from the remembrance of man, if possible."

The reference is to an article by Sparks, in the *North American Review* for January, 1824, on C. J. Ingersoll's annual oration before the American Philosophical Society, in the course of which Sparks spoke strongly against the maintenance of the duty on books. Tucker states (*Life of Jefferson*, vol. ii, pp. 466, 467) that Jefferson "presented a petition to Congress against this duty in the session of 1823, which, being drawn by himself, was circulated among the members, as an object of interest and curiosity, not only as his autograph, but as a remarkable specimen of neat penmanship for one then eighty years of age." It was all in vain, however; as Tucker remarks, "the interest of the booksellers prevailed against that of the community." The answer of Congress to Jefferson's petition, so far as any seems to have been vouchsafed, is to be read in the tariff act of 1824. By that act, books printed before 1775, and all books in languages other than English (except Latin and Greek), were subjected to a duty of four cents a volume; Latin and Greek books, fifteen cents a pound if bound, thirteen cents a pound unbound; all other books, thirty cents a pound bound, and twenty-six cents a pound unbound.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

## FRANCE AND THE EASTERN CRISIS.

PARIS, April 7, 1887.

CIRCUMSTANCES have much to do with the success of a book. Few people had read the valuable and exhaustive work of M. Victor Bérard on 'Turkey and Modern Hellenism' before the present crisis in the East. M. Victor Bérard travelled in all parts of Greece and of the Balkan Peninsula, and describes with the greatest accuracy the curious mosaic of races which have lived so long under the domination of the Turkish conquerors. His account gives a vivid idea of the difficulties which are found in the solution of the Eastern question, and in the constitution of new states which struggle for the succession of the impotent Ottoman Empire. The work received a prize from the French Academy. M. Bérard now



gives us a new volume, entitled 'La Politique du Sultan,' which is the result of a recent visit of the author to Constantinople. The effect of it (it appeared at first in separate parts in the *Revue de Paris*) has been considerable, so much so that the author was brought at once into notoriety and had to issue a second edition of his volume on 'Turkey and Modern Hellenism.'

M. Lavisse, the editor of the *Revue de Paris*, contributes a short preface to the 'Politique du Sultan.' He remarks, with much truth, that the French public has become very indifferent to foreign matters; they are an object of attention to the people who follow closely the movements of the Bourse.

"Remark," he says, "this strange anomaly. There is not a single act of a minister, small and insignificant as it may be, which cannot be discussed and become the occasion of a question or an interpellation, of a ministerial crisis. Let a prefect be changed before or during the election, the ministry can be criticized and changed. But a treaty of alliance can be concluded which will determine our entire policy, and, suddenly, some circumstance may force us into an attitude, and this act of sovereign power escapes all discussion."

Must such alliances be concluded secretly? Must their clauses remain unknown to the nation? M. Lavisse admits that foreign affairs have the benefit of an extraordinary reserve. Nearly the whole of Europe is still monarchical, and monarchies will make secret treaties. The secret is not quite impenetrable, and we should probably learn but little if the text of the treaties of the Triple Alliance were published; the same may be said of the Dual Alliance between France and Russia. We have learned, also, recently that there are what may be called sub-treaties: recent debates have shown us that while Germany was binding herself to Austria and to Italy by the Triple Alliance, she had a sub-treaty of some sort with Russia. We have reason to believe that Russia, either at the end of her last war with Turkey or more recently, concluded a secret treaty with Turkey, guaranteeing the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and that the existence of this treaty has been a stumbling block to the great Powers and forced them to refuse Crete to Greece, and to give to Crete only autonomy under the suzerainty of the Sultan.

Not only are treaties kept secret, even in our time of parliamentary government and of unlimited freedom of the press, but we are often kept in ignorance of facts which are of paramount importance. Our newspapers do not leave us in ignorance of the movements of a tenor or of a *diva*; we are informed with astonishing rapidity of the meanest incidents of private life; we know who dined yesterday with X, who led a cotillon at Mrs. X's ball; we know why such a one committed suicide, why the porter of a house at Montmartre had a quarrel with his wife, etc.; but, it is really humiliating to say, we were for more than a year (for about eighteen months) totally unaware that from 200,000 to 300,000 Armenians had been massacred in cold blood in various parts of Asia Minor; it was only when an attack was made on the Ottoman Bank in Constantinople that public opinion was aroused and began to take an interest in this question of the Armenian massacres. Till then the meagre news given from time to time in the papers had been represented as mere inventions of the Armenian Committee in London. Our press, which is indefatigable in its harmless assaults on the "perfidious Albion," succeeded in persuading the public that the Armenian massacres were pure fiction. The public was

kept in ignorance by a press which seemed to be an accomplice of the Sultan; the Chambers were kept in ignorance by the diplomatic reserve of a silent minister of foreign affairs. The Chambers, as well as the public, were, so to speak, completely blinded. We had secured the Russian alliance, we had had a visit from the Tsar; what more could be asked? The Minister was surrounded by a halo, the nation could trust him and trust our Russian friends.

The crisis in the East was really unexpected; public opinion was not prepared for it, and the result has been that the Greeks were at first looked upon as what we call *trouble-fêtes*. As M. Lavisse justly says: "If the reports of our consuls had appeared, from the beginning, the prejudice in favor of the Sultan, which cannot be denied, could not have been maintained; and if the Sultan had felt that he had really to deal with France, he would not have laughed in our faces, as he has done several times." M. Bérard says in his book that as many as seventeen French papers have been, of late years, in the pay of the Sultan, who took the place of the unfortunate Panama Company, which squandered millions of francs upon journalists and Deputies.

It must be said, also, that the Turkish debt is wholly held, at the present time, in France and in England. There exists a financial committee which undertook, after the last reorganization of the Turkish debt, to levy and to centralize a number of taxes in Turkey, and to apply this income to the payment of the Turkish debt and of the guarantees given to some Ottoman railways. This commission has fulfilled its function with great regularity and with marked success, though perpetual demands of the Sultan and of the camarilla of the Porte have thrown constant difficulties in its way. The crisis in the East has been most unfortunate for the financial reorganization of the Ottoman Empire, and every effort has been made to minimize it and to preserve the *status quo*. That the *status quo* will be preserved, with an autonomous Crete, seems very probable at the moment when I write. The great Powers will make every effort to hinder a war between Greece and Turkey. They will be confronted with difficulties when they try to carry into execution the plan they have formed for Crete, as the island is not now, financially speaking, able to support the expense of a separate government, with an executive power, a police, courts, etc. The autonomy of Crete is only a stepping-stone to the annexation of the island to the Greek Kingdom; but, in the absence of any great leading political mind in Europe, which has been felt since the retirement of Prince Bismarck, European diplomacy is contented with small victories, and lives, so to speak, from day to day, in mortal fear of a general war.

Europe continues meanwhile its ruinous armaments, and leaves to the future the solution of many problems. Among the most ominous questions which must preoccupy all thinking minds is the future organization of the Balkan states, and the fate of the various parts of the Ottoman Empire. The 'Politique du Sultan' throws a lurid light on these questions. M. Victor Bérard made his notes in Constantinople after the massacres. His description of Hasskeui, a faubourg inhabited chiefly by Armenian families, is heartrending. Hasskeui is almost unknown to Europeans, as it is separated from Galata and Pera by the arsenal of Tershane. The inhabitants do their work in the city and return at night; workmen, tailors, shoemakers, very poor, living on the edge of the fields and the cemete-

ries. The dragoman of the embassy was distributing some blankets in a church at Hasskeui when M. Bérard made his visit. After the distribution the dragoman said:

"I used to know everybody here. Already, in 1895, after the massacres of Stamboul, a hundred and sixty men took refuge in this church and would not leave it. The embassy sent me to negotiate with them, each embassy having taken charge of an Armenian quarter. I succeeded in reassuring them. They only begged to have turned out of Hasskeui two Mussulman butchers and a man from the arsenal who had constituted themselves a sort of committee for the massacre, and who threatened them with death. Notwithstanding our representations, these bandits were not disturbed, and when the *assommeurs* came, the work was ready. The Armenian doors had been marked with chalk. The party came by boat, on Wednesday, August 26, towards five o'clock, and during the whole night and the whole of the next day, thirty hours in all, they were at work. The first Armenians, whom they found at the landing, were taken to the butchers. As they struggled they cut their hands, and the butchers screamed, 'Pig's feet to sell!' Then they were bludgeoned, after the fashion adopted in this well-organized execution. The bands had for their only weapons sticks (*sopas*), all of the same form and length, made, it is believed, for this use, in the workshops of the navy, and it is known that a few days before they had been distributed in the different posts of the police. . . . The *sopadis* threw the Armenians on the ground and knocked them on the head till it was reduced to a pulp or separated from the trunk. The police surrounded the quarter and drove back those who took to flight. They proceeded methodically; not an Armenian house was forgotten."

After the description *de visu* of this poor quarter, M. Bérard tells the tale, horrible in its monotony, of the Armenian massacres in Asia Minor. His last chapters are entitled, "The Sultan and Armenia," "The Mussulmans in Europe." His conscientious work leaves a most painful impression on the mind, the sense of an incurable disease in the Mussulman world, and of an incurable impotence in Europe. Mussulman fanaticism confronts European scepticism, and we feel that it may confront it for generations to come.

#### MORE READINGS FROM THE ITALIAN RENAISSANCE.

ITALY, March 31, 1897.

It says something for a poet's love of fatherland and of mother tongue (especially when the poet is Carducci), that he has devoted two years to the selection of 'Readings from the Italian Renaissance,'\* and this with "such heartfelt satisfaction" that he would fain have written fewer verses and have put his time to better purpose,

"so great is the moral elevation, so keen the spur to human perfection, which well-born minds find in the revelations of a great soul, in the narration of a sublime fact, in the exposition of thoughts superior to the senses, to immediate utility and practicalness. Nothing is so aesthetically beautiful as the devotion and self-sacrifice of a man to liberty, to country, to an idea: no drama seems to me so moving as the delirium of Camillo Cavour when dying; no epopee so true and splendid as the battles of Calatafimi and of Palermo; no lyric so lofty as the martyrdom of Giuseppe Andreoli, of Tito Speri, of Pier Fortunato Calvi. Filled with such sentiments, while selecting these Readings with a view, not only to our schools, but to the families and the youth of the country, I seemed to live again in better, bygone times."

\* 'Letture del Risorgimento Italiano. Scelte e ordinate da Giosuè Carducci.' Vol. I, 1749-1830. Vol. II, 1831-1870. For the preface and subject-matter of the first volume see the *Nation*, vol. 61, p. 361. *Risorgimento* is the word used by Carducci for Italy's literary rebirth; *Risorgimento* for her political resurrection.

Yet some people of importance demurred:

"One newspaper, edited by professors for the use of schools, informed me that nothing in the first volume was worth reading except the preface. Is it possible? Can the story of the martyrs who gave them a country, of the cities whose heroism cancelled the supine servitude of their forefathers, can the noble pages which rekindled souls in the cemetery of ages—the pages of Vittorio Alfieri, of Ugo Foscolo, of Vincenzo Gioberti, and of Giuseppe Mazzini—be reading unworthy of the youth of Italy? Alas, what a diminutive of 'the man' is a mere professor, a pedagogue, a *letterato*! I quite understand how clerical and anarchists issued from the schools where the teaching of Italian consisted in comparing the variants of the 'Promessi Sposi'; that of Latin in delving for grammatical exceptions and metrical difficulties; where five months passed in arranging the dynasties of the Pharaohs, and other five in deciphering the legislation of the Longobards.

"Somebody wrote that 'I did not create' Italy, (a silly, saltless phrase); that 'neither did I invent the history of Italy!' Assuredly I did not, but you neither write nor teach it! The people of France have noble and eloquent narratives of her recent glories and misfortunes, all adapted for family and school reading, and for young men and women. We have been left to Botta, to Colletta, and to Canti! The generation which succeeded the writers of the Renaissance have set themselves to copy France in all her worst productions; to copy what is really the detritus, the refuse of her social dissolution, precisely all that Gioberti and Mazzini most earnestly admonished them to avoid. The quasi contemporaries of Cavour, of Farini, of Ricasoli, write novels where 'all is said and done,' producing a literature unsuited to Italy, instead of writing history, of which she was once the universal teacher. I have not attempted a compendium of history, nor an anthology of eloquence, but merely to hold up a mirror of patriotic and civil education."<sup>\*</sup>

The criticism on the instruction given in Italian schools is strictly just. Students fairly up in ancient history, sacred and profane, cover simply nothing of that of their own country during her revolutionary struggles; were those between fifteen and twenty years of age to be subjected to an examination in dates, names, facts, and events from 1815 to 1870, 90 per cent. would be plucked. The "Moderates" allowed but two names to be spoken in the schools—Victor Emanuel and Cavour; the Liberals, who, after sixteen years of expectation, came to power, had too many irons in the fire to attend to such small matters. Be it said to the credit of the late Minister of Public Instruction, Guido Baccelli, that he introduced and recommended these 'Readings' in the public schools. Carducci's hopes for the future of his country are centred in her youth; hence his retention of his chair in the University.

It is, indeed, chiefly on their behalf that he has broken the contemptuous silence so long maintained towards the motley crew of scribblers and coxcombs who, wounded in their weakest point by the indifference of the public to their effusions in verse and prose, have been bewailing here and in France the hard lot of unappreciated genius in unhappy Italy. In the *Vita Italiana* of the present week Carducci makes a fell sweep of these "Horse-Flies" as he aptly designates the pestiferous brood.<sup>+</sup>

"Listen," he begins: "we are forwarned.

<sup>\*</sup> The contents of this second and last volume are as choice as they are impartial. We have "The Italic Peninsula" by Napoleon I. Balbo, Tommaseo, Settembrini, Globetti, Massimo d'Azeglio, Cavour, Farini, Massari, Cibrario, all the pillars of the moderate church, take their stand with Mazzini, Montanelli, Brofferio, Guerrazzi, Cattaneo, Guerzoni, Felice Cavallotti, and Alberto Mario. Carducci gives but one reading from his own vast contribution to Renaissance literature, that gem of gems on "The Death of Garibaldi."

<sup>+</sup> Mosche Cocchiere." See La Fontaine's Fables, VII. 9.

Italian literature does not, cannot exist, because Italy has no literary centre, no common literary language universally recognized! But this cry is older than the cuckoo's. . . . These jeremiads are as ancient as are the authors of hissed plays and unread novels. If Italians rarely succeed in composing popular dramas, or in writing novels that people read from beginning to end, is history or ethnology to blame?"

Then it is recorded how high-souled Frenchmen, while admiring, translating, and disseminating throughout Europe the fresh productions of the Italian patriots\* (thus proving that Italy had a literature), "deplored that concentration of France in Paris which absorbed all efficacious individuality, kneading all into uniform dough"; how England, "who possesses the most original, freest, and truest of modern literatures," had at least two centres, while Germany had several; how Greece, "the mother of literature, abhorring concentricity and types," had at least four hearths and laboratories. Italy, too, in the fifteenth century,

"had as many literary centres as regions—one might say as cities, the copiousness and variety of productions blending ultimately in characteristic unity. And during the first half of the eighteenth century, when Italy was divided as never before or since—when Naples, Rome, and Venice all breathed a different air—did not Vico, Metastasio, Goldoni embody the representative potency of the Italian people, apparently so utterly shattered and sundered? These three were Italians *per eccellenza*, each so profoundly different the one from the other, yet each responding to the various facets and manifestations of the Italian mind and nature; all their works first or last becoming an integral Italian portion of European literature. But a literary centre—Milan, Florence, Rome? No. Italy, all was Italy! From the Alps, by the Apennines, to the two seas; along the Ligurian shores; by the banks of the Piedmontese and Lombard rivers and lakes; away over the hills of Emilia and Tuscany; by smiling Piceno, serene Umbria, and solemn Comarca; through the rigid and florid Abruzzi, the fertile Campania and Apulia; and in sunlit Sicily, in the stern island of the *nuraghi*!—wherever, with the spirit of the Gracchi, the power of Caesar had set the impress of the queen of Mediterranean civilization, of Rome, in the fusion of Ligurian, Iberian, Umbrian, Etruscan, Gallic, Oscan, Sicilian, Grecian elements—everywhere, all the country over—Italy, all was Italy! Every region was a hearth, every city an altar."

The part of the essay treating of *la lingua* is inimitable in its exhaustive survey, its subtle irony. "Between Mentana and Porta Pia; in the square of San Firenze, where Dante conversed; behind Palazzo Vecchio, where Machiavelli wrote, the catchword repeated by every magpie in Italy, is, 'We want a tongue, we want a tongue.'" One morning Broglio, a Valtellinese Minister of Public Instruction, woke up after a nightmare:

"Mother Italy, seated upon his chest, held in one hand the lance of the Quirites, in the other the escutcheon of Savoy, but she was tongueless; and, opening her mouth wide, the future author of the 'Life of Frederick II.' gazed in horror on a bloody lizard writhing there, and heard a sound of ah, ah, ah! To that dream of the Valtellinese minister many wondrous deeds and words are due—lastly, this famous message sent to France, 'Italy has no universally accepted literary tongue.' "So, so! Ariosto and Bartoli, Ferrarese; Baretti and Alfieri, Piedmontese; Parini and Manzoni, Milanese—pray, what tongue was theirs?"

Reaffirming the existence of an accepted

<sup>\*</sup> In allusion to Ginguéné, Siamondi, Cousin, Fauriel, and Baudry the publisher; all enthusiastic admirers of Manzoni, of the Romanticists, and of some of the Classicists who followed in the footsteps of Foscolo and Leopardi.

<sup>+</sup> Sardinia, where vast numbers of *nuraghi*, ancient and probably sepulchral monuments, cone-shaped, from 20 to 30 metres high, built of stones without cement, abound.

literary language, Carducci refers to the divergence of the two currents, the two schools (which, for brevity's sake, we will call by their old names—Classic and Romantic), and asks what is the rational course to pursue.

"It behooves us to restore national literary traditions to compact unity; to do this, we must proceed with gravity of purpose and of study, and possibly it may be necessary to remodel our system of secondary instruction [*i. e.*, the technical schools, the gymnasiums, the lycées, etc.] If it be true that the majority in Italy write badly, as the preachers (who rant none too well) affirm, let us write better; or, to put it modestly, let us set ourselves to learn to write better."

"*Ma che!* 'Let us create a European literature,' say the preachers!" The eight close columns devoted to this idea, suggested by Goethe and embraced by Mazzini, must be read in their entirety; not a phrase can be detached, nor a paragraph quoted, even if space permitted.

The "horse-flies" are left nameless, and nameless we leave them. Suffice it that they are scribblers of a certain age who have been trying to hound down and to cast ridicule on certain young writers who, Carducci maintains, must be allowed, nay, assisted, "to win their spurs." To these the moral of his lesson runs: Whosoever has a good and true thing to say in Italy, has an Italian language ready at hand in which to express his thoughts, and a capable audience willing to appreciate them. Whosoever fails, does so because he has no good or true thoughts within himself, and could not in any clime or in any language secure listeners or admirers. J. W. M.

## Correspondence.

### HOMER IN THE SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is a good deal of force in Prof. Hogue's communication to the *Nation* of April 8, but there is another side to the subject which should not be overlooked, even if it involve a defence of "a pedagogical mistake of the first order." Considered abstractly, it does seem absurd to plunge a pupil who has studied a hundred pages or so of Xenophon into a strange medley like the old Ionic of Homer. If the student were beginning a course of study in Greek which was to continue through his whole college course, Homer might be postponed till the time suggested by Prof. Hogue, and a logical course adopted which would tend still more to disgust the young American of to-day with Greek. Greek is, however, no longer an obligatory study throughout a college curriculum, and students may drop it entirely in some colleges, after they have once entered. If it be unwise pedagogically to study Homer in secondary schools, it is, on the other hand, certainly a most wise arrangement for arousing a genuine interest in Greek literature. Herodotus might do something to counterbalance the uninspiring pages of the 'Anabasis,' but his influence, as compared with Homer, would be but slight.

In this matter I write from an experience of over fifteen years in teaching Homer in the secondary schools, and I am thoroughly convinced that it would be a most lamentable mistake to drop Homer from the list of college requirements. There is no subject in the classics read in the preparatory schools in which so deep an interest can be kindled as in Homer. The difficulties, which might seem appalling at



first sight, vanish into thin air in the light of experience. The interest of the subject-matter is so great that it does not require much time to learn the peculiarities of the dialect sufficiently to read intelligently and with great enjoyment. While admitting that Homer contains material suitable for advanced work in college, I also maintain that, in the simplicity of his style and the fascination of his story, he is preëminently fitted for awakening in our youth a desire to know more of that strange world of over twenty centuries ago, so unlike our modern life and yet so like it in the human characters we find there.

There is one change in the study of Homer I should be glad to see sanctioned by the Committee of Twelve. Let a division be made between the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey.' Let the colleges reserve the 'Iliad' for themselves, and prescribe the 'Odyssey' for the schools. There are many reasons why this would be a wise course, but this is not the place to set them forth.

In the interest of the Greek departments of American colleges, which desire to attract our youth to the study of the noblest of languages, I sincerely hope the view of Prof. Hogue will not prevail, for I believe that the study of Greek in our schools, which is already waning, would receive a most serious blow.

WILLIAM F. ABBOT.

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#### THE CREDIBILITY OF BOUCHER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, in No. 1659, who objects to the view I expressed, in my 'True George Washington,' as to the value of Boucher's testimony, has certainly never tested the trustworthiness of his sketch of Washington. In the first eight sentences of that sketch we find the following errors:

"Washington was the second son." He was the third.

"Lawrence . . . did not acquit himself . . . well" at Carthagen. He was specially praised in the official account.

Lawrence "died at Barbadoes." He died in Virginia.

George was "Surveyor of Orange County." He was Surveyor of Culpepper County.

He was sent "to examine" the "encroachments" of the French. He was sent to carry a letter.

"He published his journal." It was done by the Governor.

"A Col. Jefferson . . . commanded." It was Col. Fry.

"Col. Muse . . . was second." He was major and below Washington in rank.

"At Braddock's . . . defeat" Washington "acquitted himself . . . decently" but not "greatly." He preëminently distinguished himself.

Here, then, are ten absolute misstatements in the first eight sentences; enough, I think, to justify me in discrediting any statement of Boucher's which was made, not from personal knowledge, but from hearsay.

If I used Boucher's statements concerning Washington's morality and the amusement excited by his journal, it is because they fall into quite a distinct class from the foregoing examples. Whether a man is moral, or whether he is laughed at, can be a matter of general repute in a community and may even be asserted by one who does not personally know him. On the point of his morality, Boucher, from personal acquaintance with Washington and his circle, was in a position to speak with fair credibility. Surely your correspondent must realize the difference between attempting to give specific facts in a man's life, and giv-

ing a general characterization. The first eight sentences of Boucher's sketch, which deal wholly with facts of Washington's early life, all of which occurred before Boucher was eighteen years of age, and most of which occurred before Boucher even came to America, are a tissue of errors; the last six sentences, which are merely generalizations, are worthy of credence and quotation because they accord with the known facts, and were such as Boucher could speak of from personal knowledge.

The fact that there were convict teachers in Virginia is no proof that Washington was taught by a criminal of the name of Hobby, any more than the existence of colleges to-day proves that a man must necessarily have received his education from one of them. Washington's education was too slight to require a multiplication of its means, and we have enough other influences to account for what he obtained to be able to do without this convict, who has proved indeed a *hobby* horse to those writers who search for the picturesque in history. But in closing I will add that in my book I did not deny that Washington might have been taught by a convict, but only maintained that better evidence than Boucher's must be produced to make it an historical fact. PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was much interested in the comments of your correspondent of April 15 who maintains the accuracy of Rev. Mr. Boucher's statement as to the early education of George Washington by a "convict servant," which had been questioned by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford in his 'True Washington.' In support of the parson's assertion concerning the instruction of planters' children in colonial times by "indented servants or transported felons," I send, from the records of a well-known Virginian family, a notable instance occurring at a much earlier period.

Col. John Carter of Corotoman was a very prominent and wealthy planter of Lancaster County, which he had represented in the House of Burgesses for many years. He was lieutenant of the shire, commander-in-chief of the military forces of the Northern Neck of Virginia, and eventually member of the colonial Council. Though essentially a man of action, who lived in stirring times, yet he seems to have collected a fair library about him. His will, which I recently perused at Lancaster C. H., is dated 1669, and from a bequest therein we learn the method of securing instruction which obtained in his day.

To his eldest son, Col. John Carter, jr., his executor, he leaves "all my books—only my son Robert is to have the sixth part of them in goodness and value—and my wife [the fifth of his spouses, who all lie buried by his side and enumerated on his tomb-slab in Christ Church chancel] to have 'David's Tears,' 'Byfield's Treatise,' and 'The Whole Duty of Man,' and her own books." His executor is specially charged to see "that my son Robert, in his minority, be well educated for the use of his estate, and that he have a man or youth servant bought for him, that hath been brought up in the Latin School, and that he constantly tend upon him, not only to teach him his books, either in English or Latin, according to his capacity (for my will is that he shall learn both Latin & English, & to write), but also to preserve him from harm, and from doing evil; and as soon as he is free or dead, to have another bought."

This son Robert, then a boy of six years, became afterwards one of Virginia's most celebrated worthies, the famous "King Carter," so called from the vast landed estate, 300,000 acres, 1,100 slaves, and £10,000 stg. which he left to his heirs, and whose once splendid tomb, now in ruins, at Christ Church, recited that he was six years Speaker of the House of Burgesses, and Treasurer under the serene Princes William and Mary, Anne, George I. and II., President of the Council, and Governor of the Colony more than a year, who by his two wives . . . had many [15] children, on whose education he expended large sums of money." Under the will of his elder brother, Col. John, whose eventual heir he was, he became also possessed of the family library, containing, according to the inventory, valuable works in Latin, Greek, French, and Spanish, English history and divinity, poetry, etc., besides his law books and the then highly esteemed 'Eikon Basilike,' 'Basilikon Doron,' etc. WILSON MILES CARY.

915 N. CHARLES ST., BALTIMORE, APRIL 18, 1897.

#### FICTION-READING IN ONTARIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of your recent article on "Fiction Fiends," it may be of interest to your readers to know that in the province of Ontario the reading of fiction is on the decrease. According to the speech of the Hon. G. W. Ross, Minister of Education, delivered in the Legislative Assembly on March 4 of this year: "The percentage of fiction read during 1896 is 48 per cent., as compared with 57 per cent. in 1890. In 1880 the amount of fiction read was 80 per cent. of the whole reading." In the case of the leading city, Toronto, the decrease is still more remarkable. In 1885 fiction was 64.5 per cent. of the entire circulation. In 1896 it was only 46.8 per cent. in a circulation of over half a million volumes. Neither in the city nor in the province has there been any change of classification in that time.

For the province the total issue for 1896 was 1,917,365 volumes for 319 libraries reporting, as against a total issue in 1883 of 251,920 volumes for 93 libraries reporting. The total population of the province is about two millions.

A. M.

DALHOUSIE COLLEGE, HALIFAX, N. S., APRIL 14, 1897.

#### UNCUT LEAVES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The current number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* has just come to hand. With its sheets folded and re-folded and folded again, it takes five minutes to cut the leaves. Other magazines require from two to four minutes. Estimating a monthly sale of three million uncut magazines in this country and in Europe, demanding on an average three minutes each for cutting the leaves, and an annual issue of two thousand uncut books in editions of a thousand each, requiring five minutes per volume for cutting, we find that nearly two million hours are spent each year, in this country and in Europe, in putting books and periodicals into a readable condition after they have been received from the publishers.

The above estimates are probably considerably below the truth. Why should not pressure be brought to bear on all publishers to issue their books and magazines either trimmed or cut open by the new process recently adopted by the enterprising proprietors of one



of our popular ten-cent magazines? This process leaves the edges uncut, and is thus not open to the objections raised against paring or trimming the margins of books. "What greater crime than waste of time!" exclaims the old proverb. How long must we continue to wear out our patience and waste our time in plying the paper-cutter?

Very truly yours, PERCY F. BICKNELL.

LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS,  
CHAMPAIGN, APRIL 15, 1897.

#### BRYANT'S PORTRAIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to correct the following statement made in the *Nation* of April 15:

"Nor was it [the portrait of Bryant] afterward, as Mr. Howe says, published in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for May, 1841, with a notice by Poe. This magazine was not issued after 1840; and though *Graham's Magazine*, which succeeded it, published a portrait of Bryant, it was not in May, 1841, but in August, 1843, and the artist was not Inman, but Thompson, and the writer of the notice was not Poe, whose Bryant article appeared in *Godey's* for April, 1846."

Inman's portrait of Bryant, engraved by G. Parker, with notice by Poe, appeared in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for May, 1840. Mr. Howe, therefore, has made a mistake merely in his citation of the date.

Yours truly, BENJAMIN SAMUEL.  
RIDGWAY LIBRARY, PHILADELPHIA, April 17, 1897.

#### A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just been able to look back to my record of the Cretan insurrection of 1866-7-8, and find that I am mistaken in saying, in my letter to the *Nation*, that the suppression of the movement by Bulgarians took place within three months of the refusal of the offer of autonomy made by A'ali Pasha. It was a year after. A'ali landed on the 4th of October, 1867; on the 11th of November Omer Pasha was recalled in disgrace, and in September of the year following the plan of Bulgarians for suppressing the insurrection came into effect.

But the sequence of events was the same, and the course of fewer or more months did not change the relation of parties, but showed the tenacity of the insurrection, which the Greek Government stifled that it might not end in autonomy and so Greece lose the opportunity of worrying Turkey and securing annexation. — Yours truly, W. J. S.

HOTEL VICTORIA, ROME, April 6, 1897.

#### SUNRISE AT MOSCOW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Now that Mr. Scott has furnished us with a witty criticism of Mr. Richard Harding Davis's astronomical observations at the coronation of the Czar, I venture to add a word. When I read Mr. Davis's account, I bethought me that Moscow enjoys none of the famous "white nights," and that the Muscovites sometimes make the journey to St. Petersburg for the express purpose of witnessing them. Then I looked up the data in my Russian calendar. On May 26 the sun rises, at Moscow, at 3:30 A. M., and sets at 8:24 P. M. At St. Petersburg, on that day, it rises at 2:59 A. M., and sets at 8:55 P. M. On the longest day, which in Moscow is June 21, the sun rises at 3:14 A. M., and sets at 8:49 P. M.

The longest days at St. Petersburg are June 19-23, inclusive, when the sun rises at 2:36 A. M., and sets at 9:27 P. M. Perhaps it was the moon, in festive array for the great event, which Mr. Davis saw. — Very truly yours,

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

NEW YORK, April 15, 1897.

#### RASK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to the question of Mr. A. D. Hodges, jr., in the *Nation* of yesterday, I will suggest that *rask* was *ross*, the rough outer portion of the bark of certain trees. In northern New England the bark of the hemlock was formerly extensively used for tanning, and, as late as the early part of the present century, the *ross* was removed from the bark before grinding, and tanners and others used it for fuel.

SIDNEY I. SMITH.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., April 16, 1897.

#### Notes.

THE Dante Society, of Cambridge, Mass., puts out through its Council, of which Prof. Norton is the head, an appeal for an enlarged membership on the ground of substantial past achievements. It now barely maintains itself and its admirable working library, and needs additional support for more extensive publications. It has in hand a concordance to Dante's minor Italian works (*Vita Nuova* and the *Canzoniere* being finished), and a revision, by Prof. E. S. Sheldon, of Blanc's 'Vocabolario Dantesco.' The Society has already to its credit Dr. Fay's Concordance to the 'Divine Comedy.' The annual membership fee is five dollars (one guinea in England), and may be sent to the Secretary, Prof. A. R. Marsh, Cambridge.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, have undertaken a new, illustrated edition of Francis Parkman's Histories from new type in twenty medium-octavo volumes, with 120 photographic plates made in Paris and consisting chiefly of authentic portraits and contemporary prints, together with some original designs by American artists. The edition will be limited. The same house will presently begin issuing, in conjunction with Sampson Low, Marston & Co., a History of the Royal Navy from the earliest times to 1898, in five volumes, fully illustrated. 'Captain Shays, a Populist of 1786,' an historical romance by George R. R. Rivers, is also in the press of this house.

Dodd, Mead & Co. announce 'The Personal Life of Queen Victoria,' by Miss Tooley; 'The Romance of Isabel, Lady Burton,' with portraits and other illustrations; 'The Treasure of the Humble,' by Maurice Maeterlinck; and a volume of charades, 'The Green Guess-Book.'

Mr. Gladstone's 'Later Gleanings: Theological and Ecclesiastical,' and a 'Concordance to the Greek Testament' emanating from T. & T. Clark, Edinburgh, will bear the imprint of Charles Scribner's Sons in this country.

The New Amsterdam Book Company publish this month 'The Crimean Diary of the late Gen. Sir Charles A. Windham, K. C. B.,' and 'The Letters of De Brogues,' translated by Lord Ronald Gower. They have in preparation Lord Lytton's Works in twenty-eight volumes.

'The Half-Caste: An Old Governess's Tale,' by the late Miss Mulock, will be published in

a few days by Thomas Whittaker. The story first appeared in *Chambers' Journal*, and is now first issued in book form.

'Maude,' a story written by the late Christina Rossetti when a young girl, will be issued shortly by Herbert S. Stone & Co.

'The Duodecimos' resume publication with 'The Poems of Mrs. Anne Bradstreet (1612-1672), together with her Prose Remains,' to which Prof. Charles Eliot Norton furnishes an introduction. This fifth edition of the verse of the first American poetess will be printed from new type on hand-made paper at the De Vinne Press, with portraits and views, in a limited edition (12+133, the major number being for sale). The Treasurer of the Duodecimos is W. Irving Way, Monadnock Building, Chicago.

George P. Humphrey, 25 Exchange St., Rochester, N. Y., is to issue monthly a series of "Colonial Tracts," reprints of some of the more valuable pamphlets relating to the early history of America, at \$3.00 per annum or 25 cents apiece. The May number will consist of Sir R. Mountgomery's "Discourse concerning the Designed Establishment of a New Colony to the South of South Carolina," etc. (London, 1717).

Rev. Dr. C. Ellis Stevens's book, 'Sources of the Constitution of the United States,' is being translated into the French language by a member of the French diplomatic service, and is about to be published in Paris by Guillemin & Co. in their well-known series of notable foreign works.

The ample and generous style of the Centenary Edition of Carlyle's Works, undertaken in England by Chapman & Hall, and in this country by Charles Scribner's Sons, becomes more impressive by multiplication of the volumes. We have now before us the 'French Revolution,' in three volumes, the first of the 'Cromwell,' and the single volume of 'Heroes and Hero-Worship.' Three important plates, after old prints, accompany each, and in the case of Rousseau, for 'Heroes and Hero-Worship,' the publishers have made apt selection of a portrait which nearly enough corresponds to Carlyle's unflattering picture of that author, whereas another choice, just as authentic, but putting quite a different face on the matter, would have been possible and easy. This edition, we will remind our readers, presents Carlyle's text without gloss, and with only introductions, general and particular, from Mr. H. D. Traill. The thirtieth and final volume will consist of matter never before published in a collected form. The price is remarkably moderate for so fine a manufacture.

From Messrs. Scribner we have also the fourth volume of the uniform edition of Rudyard Kipling's Works, 'In Black and White,' twenty-three short tales in all, with three illustrations modelled in low relief by the elder Kipling, each one a type of Indian character or manners, rendered both knowingly and artistically.

From Macmillan we have another volume in their handsome series of standard novels of the early part of the present century, being Thomas Love Peacock's 'Misfortunes of Elphin, and Rhododaphne,' to which Prof. Saintsbury furnishes an introduction. They have also issued for J. M. Dent & Co. another of the translated works of Balzac, 'A Woman of Thirty,' with Prof. Saintsbury again for usher, and six fresh volumes in the "Temple Classics" under Mr. Israel Gollancz's general editorship, namely, 'Gulliver's Travels,' 'Le Morte d'Arthur' in two volumes, the 'Essays of Elia,' Bacon's Essays, and the first volume of

Montaigne's in Florio's version. These are charming little copies of first or early editions, with some editorial apparatus, *e. g.*, in the case of Bacon, marginalia, an index of quotations and foreign phrases, and a glossary.

'Life's Comedy,' first series (Scribners), is a quarterly selection from the cartoons and smaller pieces in *Life*, here divided into "The American Girl," "Sweethearts and Lovers," "The American Family," and "Our Bachelors." The residuum of pure humor after separating the illustrations which are fitted with cynical or worldly legends, is so slight that we find this collection rather melancholy than otherwise; nor can we think the influence of such illustrations, week in and week out and year after year, on the readers of *Life* anything but unwholesome. While the cleverness of the artists, too, is undeniable, what they give us is a millinery show; it is not comic art.

That "cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day," 'Hazel's Annual,' for 1897, revised to November 21, 1896 (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners), exhibits its customary freshness. Maps of Armenia, Guiana-Venezuela, the Egyptian Sudan, and the Transvaal mark the political physiognomy of the past year, as do some of the new biographies—Bryan, McKinley, Laurier, Krüger, etc. Nansen's expedition with the *Fram* is summarized, and among the curious rubrics which show the inclusiveness of Hazel is "Tsetse Fly Disease," from which we learn that this pest of the South African exploration and settlement is being taken in hand by "a committee of expert pathologists" for an exhaustive inquiry. The infected areas are being mapped with great minuteness, and the actual parasite of the tsetse is being experimented with in London. An item like this, with all that is implied in it historically and scientifically, cuts a large figure in the comparison of the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign with its sixtieth year.

Tennyson's 'The Princess,' burlesque though it is, in the main, has such characteristically Tennysonian beauties, especially in the scattered lyrics, that it serves well enough, for young students, as an introduction to the study of the poet, and, partly because of those beauties, partly, no doubt, because of its collegiate atmosphere, it has been much studied, of late years, in secondary schools. To the school editions of W. J. Rolfe and H. W. Boynton is now added that of Prof. G. E. Woodberry of Columbia. The volume forms one of the series of English Classics published by Longmans in direct preparation for the uniform college entrance requirements in English, and is one of the books prescribed "for study" for the examinations of 1898. Mr. Woodberry's introduction, of 24 pages, is interesting and clear; his explanatory foot-notes dealing with archaisms and historical allusions, while sometimes rather elementary even for the college preparatory student's needs, are brief and to the point; the longer notes are thrown into a useful appendix, in which are given some of the most obvious literary parallels. This last is an excellent feature; the student cannot be too early taught to look out for such parallels, and to recognize that the study of English literature is vain unless it be based on a scholarly knowledge of the classical literatures which the greatest English poets have, above all others, delighted to echo. On p. 189 occurs the slight typographical error "Olympia" for "Olympian."

Storer's 'Agriculture' appears in a new (seventh), enlarged and thoroughly revised

edition (Charles Scribner's Sons). New chapters on Ensilage and on Symbiosis have been introduced, and much other matter rendered necessary by the progress of science has been added. The two volumes of the first edition, which was issued in 1887, have grown into three; the 1,024 pages to 1,874. Though the work appeals especially to the practical farmer and the student of agriculture, it will be read with interest and profit by all who are fond of rural affairs.

Prof. A. Rebière's 'Les Femmes dans la Science' (Paris: Nony & Cie.) has swelled from the modest brochure of a few years ago into a fine octavo volume of 360 pages, with twenty-five portraits and a half-dozen facsimiles of autographs. There are notices of six hundred and nine women, arranged in alphabetical order and varying in length from two words to a dozen pages. This large number, it must be confessed, is reached only by the exercise of the greatest liberality on the part of the author, who admits, *e. g.*, George Sand among the chosen ones on the ground of her "fondness" for mineralogy and botany, "Sara" for being one of the daughters of Pythagoras, and Mrs. Henry Draper for "being reputed" to have participated in the labors of her husband. But this hospitable spirit does not lessen the value of this dictionary of women in one way or other connected with the sciences. The collection of opinions on the intellectual capability of women (pp. 289-319), and even the *menus propos* or undigested notes (84 pp.), may still be of interest to some belated students of the woman question. The author requests readers of both sexes to notify his publishers of any omissions and errors they may discover in his work.

La Fontaine has still another biographer and critic in M. Georges Lafenestre, himself a delicate and graceful poet of deep and true artistic feeling, who has written the latest of the monographs, save that of Malherbe, published by Hachette in their collection "Les Grandes Écrivains de la France." This "La Fontaine" differs from that of Taine in not being a special study of the Fables, and from that of Faguet, in the series of "Classiques Populaires," in being more thorough and covering more ground. M. Faguet, it is true, is at present engaged in giving, in his Sorbonne course, a new and scholarly study of the poet which bids fair to be a work of mark. M. Lafenestre's book is delightfully written, and is free from that laudation at any cost which spoils many a biography and critical estimate. That La Fontaine had faults, that some of his work is immoral and was deservedly condemned, are facts accepted and set forth without fear by his latest biographer, though he rightly dwells at greater length and with evident pleasure on the qualities and beauties of his subject. The life of the poet is told concisely and pleasantly. The difficulties of La Fontaine with Louis XIV., whose favor he never gained, the reasons for the non-appreciation of his work by Boileau, the wholly delightful tilt within the august portals of the Academy, are all recounted with spirit and fairness to all parties. The critical estimate of the worth of the Fables and other writings is distinctly satisfactory.

Burggraf's 'Schillers Frauengestalten' is a very successful attempt to prove that the generally accepted idea in regard to woman's influence on Schiller is not well founded. It has been largely maintained that only a strong masculine mind like that of Kant or Goethe ever nourished Schiller. To counteract this belief, the author starts with Schiller's

statement to the Von Lengefeld sisters, that woman's society was necessary to him, and that to her sex he was indebted for his happiest hours. Then he studies the characters of the women with whom Schiller was in any way associated, both the passing acquaintances that soon faded from the poet's mind, and also the women of strong, deep, and earnest character who left a lasting impression upon him. As the author takes them up, he writes a biography of each, longer or shorter in proportion to her intimate relations with Schiller, with these questions in mind: What has she been to him? what has she given him? what on his human side, what on his poetic side? The close relation between Goethe's female friends and the female characters of his books has always been emphasized, and it has been thought that no such relation existed between Schiller's acquaintances and the women of his writings. Burggraf very happily shows the falsity of this belief by a long and clever series of comparisons. The poet's wife exerted by far the greatest influence upon him, and this is seen especially in the change in Schiller's idea of patriotism, as it appears in his early works, contrasted with the later ones.

Beginning with volume 6, the Kansas University Quarterly will appear in two series: A, Science and Mathematics; B, Philology and History. The first number of series A contains a continuation of Williston's Brazilian Diptera and some paleontological memoirs, besides two useful papers on gypsum. The series devoted to Philology opens with an article on "Analysis in Logical Composition."

Heligoland is the subject of an important memoir contributed to the latest volume of the *Acta* of the University of Lund by H. H. von Schwerin. He treats in detail of the history of the island from the earliest mention of it by classical writers down to its cession to Germany, dwelling especially upon the chronicle of Adam of Bremen as well as upon the local folklore and legends. In connection with an account of the geology of Heligoland, a series of charts is added, showing the extraordinary changes effected in its contour by the action of the sea.

The thirty-fifth volume of the reports on the geological map of Switzerland is by Dr. Carl Burckhardt, a pupil of Heim's, on the limestone range north of the Klönthal ('Monographie der Kreideketten zwischen Klönthal, Sihl und Linth,' Bern, 1896). It is particularly interesting on two sides: first from the peculiar structures of the range, in which two systems of folds are involved, one about at right angles with the other; and again from the illustrations, in which Heim's graphic skill is reflected in the handiwork of his pupil. The numerous geological sections and diagrammatic views are so effective that the difficulties of the text are largely resolved by their aid.

Bulletin 144, United States Geological Survey, gives an account of the glacial moraines of the Missouri coteau, by J. E. Todd, State Geologist of South Dakota. Here, as in so many of the more modern essays on glacial geology, one may learn of the remarkable importance of glacial action in determining the geographical features of to-day. On the plains of Dakota the moraines form the dominant relief of the surface. In a district about sixty miles southeast of Bismarck there is a belt of morainic hills, six to ten miles wide, so rough and with so many stony hills and marshy hollows as to be a formidable barrier to travel. The hills and hollows are all



much alike, so that the traveller may easily lose his way among them. The moraines are traversed by the abandoned channels of streams that were active while the ice was present. Their beds are now often occupied by shallow lakes.

Dissertations and other essays by graduate students in our universities are of growing importance. Four recent publications of this kind on geological subjects deserve mention: The Neocene of the Santa Cruz Mountains (California), by G. A. Hall, of Stanford University; Geology of the Fox Islands, Maine, by G. O. Smith, of Johns Hopkins; Bibliography of Geological Literature of the State of Virginia, by T. L. Watson, of Cornell; and the Geology of Santa Catalina Island, by W. S. T. Smith, of the University of California. The Pacific slope has a good share in these productions.

—Quite the most brilliant paper in the *American Historical Review* for April is that by Prof. Edward G. Bourne of Yale on the disputed numbers of the *Federalist*. Our epithet is not inconsistent with the scholarly painstaking on which the writer's argument is grounded. Dismissing the battle of the "lists" which ascribe to Hamilton or to Madison, Prof. Bourne takes up the controversy with reference to the natural division of subjects among the three authors of the *Federalist*, the logical nexus of the numbers, and, finally, the internal and collateral evidence of authorship. He finds no hiatus between No. 49 and the admittedly Madisonian discussions Nos. 47, 48, which, with Nos. 49-51, relate to the partition of powers, and, with Nos. 49-58, continue the task impliedly assigned (in No. 37) to Madison of reviewing the work of the Convention; Nos. 52-58 form a connected examination of the structure of the House of Representatives; Nos. 62, 63 deal with the make-up of the Senate, and are a proper sequel to No. 58, having been dislocated by Madison's necessity of leaving New York for Virginia, and by Hamilton's of keeping up the series in the meantime with Nos. 59-61. All but three of the questionable numbers (viz., 55, 57, and 58) are taken up in detail (much compressed by reason of the *Review's* exigencies as to space), and in every instance a case is made out for Madison, sometimes slightly, sometimes powerfully, and altogether with a cumulative weight that is to our mind absolutely conclusive. Prof. Bourne parallels the text of the numbers from Madison's Writings and from his debates in the Convention, with greatest fulness in the case of Nos. 62, 63, but not less surely in other instances. Both the ideas and the phraseology show a striking concurrence. Of rhetorical earmarks only one is noted, in No. 56, viz., the word "monitory," which was a favorite with Madison; in special learning, the reference to Polybius in No. 63 is matched in other writings of Madison's, but Prof. Bourne has not encountered in Hamilton's any sign of acquaintance with this historian. On the whole, this is one of the most solid and satisfactory pieces of historical criticism that we have met with in a long time.

—A pathetic interest attaches to the late President Francis A. Walker's last annual report to the corporation of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which, though dated December 9, has only recently been published. His lucid and vigorous treatment of the various topics touched upon, his wise recommendations for enlarging the sphere of activity and for broadening and liberalizing the

work of technical education, give no indication of diminished strength. Among the valuable suggestions is one in respect to opening the courses of history and the related subjects of economics, statistics, sociology, and government to the teachers of history in the schools of Boston and vicinity. President Walker's largeness of view is apparent in the remark made in connection with the appointment of one of his professors as a member of a State Commission: "I consider it sound policy for an institution of the higher learning liberally to encourage its professors to connect themselves with the public service, and with the active interests of the community, in every way and to every degree which may be compatible with the full and proper performance of their duties as teachers. Altogether, in addition to the consideration of the service that may be thereby performed for the State and its citizens, I believe that the teachers bring back to their classes from such work and service much which is of great value to the student." Further, one discovers in the report evidences of the kindly personal interest in his students which was so marked a characteristic of President Walker, when it adverts to the need of a reading-room for the promotion of "better social relations," to the club-houses, and to the association which aims "to secure pleasant and wholesome homes for newcomers." Special stress is laid on the need of a new building for properly and adequately carrying on the constantly enlarging work, especially in the various departments of engineering, architecture, and biology, and it would seem as if no more fitting monument than this could be raised in memory of President Walker.

—In P. K. Foley's 'American Authors, 1795-1895,' we have a well printed octavo of 350 pages, of which 500 copies only have been issued (in Boston) "for the subscribers." The compiler's evident intention has been to include the titles of books by writers who, within the last hundred years, have published enough works of the class usually called belles lettres to entitle them to be fairly termed litterateurs, and the work includes the youngest of our contemporary writers, even to those born as recently as 1865. In a number of cases the aid of the author himself is very manifest, but except where this has been given the list is far from satisfactory; there are many omissions of names and titles which should be included, misprints abound, and little judgment or unity is shown throughout. The works of some few writers are set forth at great length, and the titles of their writings are greatly multiplied by giving all books to which they contributed a poem or a preface. In a few cases all the non-literary writings are included, even to medical and mathematical works, while in others they are excluded. Indeed, the very selection of names shows want of discrimination: twenty authors or more are included who were practically unknown to their own generation, much more the present, and it is difficult to treat with any seriousness a book which puts beside our best literature the writings of Ignatius Donnelly, E. P. Roe, and Ella Wheeler Wilcox. One fact which the chronological arrangement serves to bring out with unusual clearness is the fertility—one is tempted to say superfecundation—of certain of the modern novelists. Among these, Mr. Crawford, with a record of twenty-eight tales in fourteen years, stands first, but he is hard pressed by Julian Hawthorne and Edgar Fawcett. The exact use of the list is not altogether easy to

define, since the titles are far too brief to make it of value to the collector, and the material is already in print in much better form.

—The state of public opinion in China, since the war with Japan, is perhaps of equal importance to the student of Oriental affairs with the ideas of the rulers at Peking. The publications of "The Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge among the Chinese" show the growth of three different sets of opinion among the thoughtful Chinese. The society we speak of is composed of Scottish and other business men at the ports, and the most scholarly and progressive of the missionaries in China. It has for its president the man whom probably all foreigners agree in believing to be the most important foreigner in China, Sir Robert Hart, the head of the imperial maritime customs. The Society is an evolution of the School and Text-Book Committee of 1877. Its object is the circulation and publication of literature, based on Christian principles and adapted for all classes, throughout China and wherever Chinese are found. The Society publishes a monthly magazine entitled the *Wan Kwok Kung Pao* or *Review of the Times*, which, though animated by a Christian purpose, is full of literature which all intelligent Chinese are likely to read. For example, in the number for January, 1897, we find well-rendered translations of an article from *Blackwood* on the Apotheosis of Russia, and others on the Will of Peter the Great; the story of how the English became Christian; an irenic paper on the Relation of Christianity to Confucianism; Chinese theories of human nature, effects of opium, Li Hung Chang's travels, a foreign mail summary, telegraphic intelligence, and various notes of interest on a variety of subjects. The editor is the veteran American missionary, Rev. Young J. Allen, who, during the twenty-eight years, has shown himself so sympathetic a helper of the Chinese and interpreter of Occidental to Oriental civilization. Last year he wrote and printed in the magazine an elaborate History of the Sino-Japanese War, from the first despatch received from the Chinese Resident Yuan at Seoul down to the retrocession of the Liao Tung Peninsula. This work excited so much interest among the Chinese that a native publisher issued it in book form, whereupon Dr. Allen revised it and published it in twelve volumes, having enlarged it from 70,000 to 90,000 characters, including an appendix on educational reform. Though undoubtedly revolutionary in its character, it has reached the Government and cabinets of the three kingdoms, China, Japan, and Korea, and copies have been requested for the imperial archives at Peking. It is the one truthful history of the war which the Chinese can and will read. That it is now being read widely is beyond all doubt.

—The gist of the Society's report for 1896 is that there are now in China three parties, the first of which we may call the party of despair—the radical, revolutionary, or absolutely pessimistic party, which demands that the whole Manchu-Chinese system shall be swept away. This phase of opinion is most current in the southern provinces, where there has always been most of the bitter national feeling against the Manchu rulers in Peking, and where rebellions have been most frequent. The second party is that of ultra-conservatism, which attributes the decay of China to the fact that for two thousand years past Confucianism has

not been interpreted, understood, and practised properly, and hence the collapse of the country. These partisans say, "Let us go back to pure Confucianism and to original principles." This is their one remedy, and their earnestness is seen in the revival of schools and colleges based on a reactionary interpretation of the writings of and commentaries upon Confucius. The third party, which might be called liberal, is the one that frankly recognizes Chinese shortcomings, and, without despairing or asserting the all-sufficiency of Confucianism, believes in wisely selecting and adopting the best features of Western civilization.

—If the degree of freedom of the press enjoyed by a country may be taken as a fair index of its enlightenment, a rather low position must be assigned to Austria in the scale of civilization. The law requiring every publisher of a newspaper in Vienna to deposit 8,000 florins (about \$3,800) with the authorities before issuing a single number of the paper, and thus limiting journalistic enterprise to comparatively wealthy persons, was abolished last year, but the even more onerous burden of the newspaper stamp is still in force. Every number of a daily or weekly newspaper must bear a kreuzer (half-cent) stamp, a tax which is also imposed on every foreign newspaper arriving in an Austrian post-office. Thus the price of the paper is greatly increased and its circulation correspondingly diminished. Every one who takes a newspaper must either be a permanent subscriber or purchase it at certain places, chiefly at the "imperial royal tobacco shops." The sale of newspapers on streets, in cafés, restaurants, or other public places of resort, is strictly forbidden, and subjects the offender to severe penalties. As the result of these repressive measures there are published in the Austrian empire only 111 daily and 575 weekly journals. The same restrictions extend to almanacs, to each of which, no matter how small and simple it may be, a stamp of six kreuzers (three cents) must be attached. The effect of these taxes on the most popular means of diffusing useful information is perceptible in the extreme ignorance of the lower classes as regards all political, social, and industrial questions of the day. Indeed, this is the sole object of the reactionary party in imposing such taxation on the spread of knowledge among the people. As a source of revenue it is of small account; the whole amount derived from stamps on Austrian newspapers and almanacs is 1,900,000 florins (about \$890,000), and on foreign journals less than 180,000 florins (about \$82,000). Hungary, on securing a certain degree of governmental independence, abolished these stamp-taxes nearly thirty years ago. How long they will stain the statute-books of Austria remains to be seen.

#### NANSEN AND THE FRAM.

*Farthest North.* By Dr. Fridtjof Nansen. With an appendix by Otto Sverdrup, captain of the *Fram*. Harper & Bros. 1897. 2 vols. 8vo, xiv, 587 and xii, 714 pp., with many illustrations.

THE most important artificial factor in Nansen's success was his vessel, the *Fram*, and perhaps his most striking contribution to methods in Arctic work was the demonstration that a vessel can be built which, under ordinary circumstances and with average luck, will resist or successfully evade the stupendous power of the crashing floes. The

experience of two centuries of exploration had resulted in a practically unanimous opinion among Arctic experts that the project was impossible; but, as the world knows, the "impossibility" is now an established fact. Of the \$125,000 which the expedition cost, considerably more than half was put into the ship. Her dimensions were, length of keel 102 feet, length over all 128 feet, beam 36 feet, depth 17 feet, extreme draught of water when fully loaded 15 feet, with a displacement of 800 tons and a measurement (gross) of 402 and (net) of 307 tons. Apart from her machinery, she carried 380 tons of freight. Her rigging was that of a three-masted schooner, with a triple-expansion engine of 220 indicated horsepower, giving, under favorable circumstances, a speed of six or seven knots. Built of the strongest materials, her sides were from 24 to 28 inches thick, with the most substantial interior bracing. Particular attention was paid to the lining of the living-rooms with a thick series of non-conducting substances, so that condensation-drip, the plague of previous expeditions, was entirely avoided.

Besides the commander, Sverdrup, and Dr. Nansen, chief of the expedition, the party comprised eleven persons, all Norwegians. It is needless to say that the equipment included everything that experience and good judgment suggested as likely to contribute to the success of the work; among novelties, perhaps the most useful was the employment of a windmill which served to provide electric light for the quarters. Through the kindly offices of Baron von Toll, a supply of Ostiak dogs to meet the expedition at Yugor Strait was arranged for, as well as relief stations on the New Siberian Islands, in case a retreat should be necessary in that direction.

On the 24th of June, 1893, the *Fram* left Kristiania. The last telegrams were sent from Vardö, on the northern coast, on the 21st of July, whence the expedition started for Khabarova, on Vaigatz Island, at the entrance to the Kara Sea. The *Fram*, as might be expected, from her rounded bottom with no projecting keel, was a wet and uncomfortable sea-boat, but conditions were favorable, and, on the 31st, the anchor dropped at Khabarova. Here the dogs were secured, repairs made to the engine, and the Yugor Strait examined for a passage. The expected coal-tender not arriving, it was decided to push on, and on the night of August 3d the ship got under way, keeping along the Siberian coast eastward. On the 10th of September the northern point of Siberia, Cape Cheliuskin, was safely rounded, and the *Fram* pushed eastward towards the New Siberian Islands, turning northward on the 13th. A suitable bight in the ice was sought and found. On September 25th, in latitude 78° 45', the vessel was finally frozen in, about 150 miles north of the western part of the New Siberian Islands.

Then began the routine of the drift. The party found plenty to do in arranging the ship for the winter, erecting the windmill for electric service, getting out the daily rations, providing ice to melt for the water-supply; the invention and repair of tools and instruments, including punched zinc sheets for the mechanical organ; making canvas boots with wooden soles; keeping the bilge free of ice from leakage and condensation; and the scientific observations. Most of these were under the charge of Lieut. Scott-Hansen, and included observations for position of the ship; magnetism and auroras; temperature and air-pressure; the electrification of the air and direction of the winds. In addition, there were

tests of the saltiness of the sea-water; soundings with temperatures at different depths; the collection of sea-animals, such as small crustacea and worms, by means of a fine silk net lowered under the ice; and observations on the thickening and other changes of the ice. For a time some anxiety was felt as to the way the vessel would meet the pressure of the ice, but her behavior soon inspired such confidence that little attention was paid to disturbances which would have crushed any ordinary vessel like a nutshell.

The daily routine included breakfast at eight A. M.; then attention to the dogs, and other duties; dinner at one P. M., followed by a short siesta; then work till six, followed by supper, books, pipes, cards, and music. At midnight the watch was set and the others turned in. The table was bountiful, and included many delicacies and sweets, but no stimulants. Birthdays and anniversaries were celebrated, breaking the monotony; while the advent of puppies and the pursuit of occasional ice-bears supplied the chief items of excitement. A newspaper, *Framsjaa*, was issued by some of the party, and contributed to the general amusement. Throughout, the relations between the members of the party were cordial and fraternal; complete confidence in their leader and in the success of the expedition seeming to have been felt by every one. The general health of the party, too, was excellent. On the 26th of October they had the last view of the sun, after which there can be little doubt that the brilliant electric illumination did much to keep up their spirits.

No bergs were seen, and the height of ridges caused by overthrust floes rarely exceeded twenty feet, and was never more than thirty feet. The ice was in more or less constant motion; lanes of open water appeared at any time. The thickness of the floe averaged six or seven feet, and sometimes reached eleven. In extreme cold weather it was hard and brittle, at other times would bend into considerable waves without breaking; fresh edges showed layers in a sort of stratification. The autumn ice grew thicker constantly all winter and into the spring, but more slowly as it thickened. In summer the drainage layer of fresh water, floating between the ice and the colder salt water, freezes on the under side of the floe. As the latter melts, the subjacent layer increases. The original floe, from about seven feet thick in April, melts to about five in the following October. The heavier ice is solely the result of overthrusting, and this under the *Fram* amounted to more than twenty feet. The ice was coldest about the end of March: 3.2° F. at a depth of 1.2 metres and —22° F. at 0.8 metre from the surface. January 23d, 1894, a solitary walrus appeared from an opening in the floe, which shows that many breathing-places must have been accessible. Nansen remarks that the Polar Sea "must be considered as one continuous mass of ice-floes in constant motion, now frozen together, now torn apart or crushed against each other."

On the 16th of February the first view of the sun was had by refraction. On the 6th of April an eclipse helped the party to rate chronometers. In June, fresh-water pools formed on the ice, one so large that they had boating parties on it. A few days later this drained into the sea through a perforation in the floe beneath it. Lanes of water appeared in all directions, but usually narrow and irregular; an impediment to travel over the ice, but of no use for navigation. The drift of the vessel



was very irregular and obviously dependent upon the winds; not necessarily the wind at the spot where the vessel lay in the ice, but the resultant of the general winds of the region, as in the case of the *Jeannette*. Thus, while the general motion of the ice was in the direction anticipated by Nansen before starting, the chief cause of this, as predicted by Mohn, was wind-pressure and not the motion of ocean currents. It is of course true that the outflow from the Polar Sea along the Greenland coast, due to a variety of causes acting in the same general direction, takes the form of a distinct oceanic current, but the motion of the ice in the more remote portions of the sea appears to be entirely dependent upon the winds.

The most important contribution to physical geography made by the expedition was the demonstration of the existence of deep water ranging between 1,800 and 2,100 fathoms. The lines originally provided proved too short to measure the depths found, and they were added to by strands unwound from wire cables, until a sufficient length was reached. The water near the surface, below the ice, ranged between 29° and 30° F., increased to about 32° at 156 fathoms, then diminished to 30° F. at 1,025 fathoms, and again increased to 33° and a fraction near the bottom. Such changes seem characteristic, and do not alter materially with the season. As spring advanced, a few birds were seen: gulls, kittiwakes, fulmars, the black guillemot and skua, and once a snow-bunting—8 species in all. On the 3d of August, Ross's gull, which had also been collected by the *Jeannette* in the region to the west, made its appearance. It seems to range as far east as Franz-Josef Land, but has not yet been reported from Spitzbergen. Several dogs died of a mysterious disease which ended in convulsions or paralysis. A few small algae and diatoms were found in great abundance in the melting ice.

In September, 1894, Nansen concluded that the drift of the vessel was probably not to be expected to carry her into a much higher latitude, and determined to attempt with one companion a sledge journey over the ice by which he should explore further to the northward. His reasons are given at length, and seem fully to warrant the bold attempt to assault the bulwarks of the Pole. In November, 1894, the trip was positively decided on, and Johansen selected as Nansen's companion. The outfit comprised both kayaks and sledges. The former were built with frames of bamboo, 12 feet long, 28 inches beam, and 12 to 15 inches deep. They were covered with canvas soaked in paraffine and tallow, and weighed 41 pounds each. The sledges were 13 feet in length, with runners about three inches wide, shod with German-silver plate, underneath which was fastened a guard-runner of maple carefully tarred. Bags of pemmican were compressed so as to form a bed for the kayak. The clothing selected was of heavy woollen, covered with a thin canvas suit to exclude snow-dust; Finnish boots of deerskin with grass packing to absorb moisture; mittens and felt hats; and a double sleeping bag of deerskin. Two guns, each having a rifle and a shot barrel, were taken, with 180 ball and 150 shot-cartridges. The snowshoes were Norwegian ski; but the experience, both of Peary and Nansen, indicates that in many cases Indian snowshoes would have been more useful. A silk tent and an excellent petroleum cooking-apparatus were among the indispensables.

A provisional start with six sledges was

made February 28, but, the equipment being found too heavy, the party returned to the *Fram* March 8. A final start with three sledges averaging 440 pounds, and nine dogs each, was made March 14th. On the first day nine miles were traversed, the temperature ranging from 40° to 45° F. below zero. Up to the 23d there was fair travelling over tolerable ice. Subsequently many pressure ridges, lanes and pools of water, and some severe storms made the going very bad. On the 8th of April a "chaos of ice-blocks" barred the way. The latitude attained was 86°, 13.6', in about east longitude 95°. Progress was so slow, with no prospect of improvement, that it was decided to turn southward. On the 12th of April exhausted nature asserted itself and the pair slept so long that their watches ran down. As the dogs began to give out from exhaustion and overwork, they were killed and the flesh fed to the survivors. At first some of them refused to eat it; but, later, hunger destroyed all canine scruples. No bergs were seen; the ice consisted of floe with overthrust ridges and hummocks. On the 36th of April a fox-track was seen, and May 19th the travellers were astonished by the appearance in an open ice lane of a school of narwhals. Ten days later the first bird, a fulmar, and the next day a guillemot and seal, were observed. The lanes became innumerable. Young ice was crossed for more than thirty miles, indicating recent open water to that extent or more. On the 2d of June Nansen and his companion stopped to repair kayaks, etc. On the 18th a diminished ration was decided on; on the 23d a seal was killed. On the 24th it was decided to launch the kayaks, leaving behind everything which could be safely spared. A seal was killed in the water, and, in trying to secure it, one of the boats filled and a fatal disaster was barely averted, with the loss of several valuable articles. A camp was made to repair damages, great difficulty being found in making the kayaks water-tight.

On the 22d of July a start was made, the most essential requisites alone being retained. On the 24th, eyes were gladdened by the sight of land, even snow-covered and barren as it was, yet twenty-two days of terrible struggle elapsed before the land was reached. Almost impassable ice, lanes and pools had to be crossed, on short rations, and Nansen writes: "Inconceivable toil. We never could go on with it if it were not for the fact that we must." On the 4th of August Johansen had a narrow escape from a bear which was killed and afforded much-needed food. On the 7th open water was reached. The two surviving dogs were regretfully killed, and the kayaks set out for the glacier-covered land. After many struggles with the ice along shore, on the 15th of August the pair set foot on the solid earth for the first time in two years. It was one of the northern islands of the Franz-Josef archipelago. A few Arctic blossoms greeted them. Pushing on, they were nearly blown off shore, and on the 28th it was evident that they must provide winter quarters. Fortunately, bear and walrus were abundant, and many were secured. On the 7th of September they began to build a stone hut, and here, in dull misery and squalor, the winter was passed in a half-comatose state. They ate and slept; kept a few observations going, though the mischievous foxes stole a thermometer and other invaluable articles. "The chief pleasure left to us was to picture to each other how we should make up next winter at home for everything we had missed during our sojourn here." There are no complaints or repining in Nan-

sen's journal, but the bare facts recorded tell the story. On the 19th of May they left their winter lair, and began to journey south. Owing to discrepancies between the land and the Austrian sketch-charts, the explorers did not know precisely where they were. After many vicissitudes and hairbreadth escapes from a variety of dangers, on the 17th of June Nansen heard the bark of a dog. Hastily gathering their things together, they pushed on, and a little later were shaking hands with Jackson of the Harmsworth expedition. Their task was ended and victory won. On the 7th of August they left Cape Flora on the yacht *Windward* and landed at Vardö a week later.

The journey of Nansen and Johansen from the *Fram* to their winter quarters was, in round numbers, about 500 nautical miles, and the distance made averaged three miles a day, allowing nothing for necessary delays en route. The distance from their winter quarters to the nearest frequented harbor in Spitzbergen is about 540 miles, much of it over the worst possible mixture of ice and water, where food could hardly be procured. An impartial survey of the facts, taking into consideration the state of their equipment, leaves hardly any room for doubt that had Nansen not met with the English expedition, the result, in the end, must have been disastrous to him and his companion. Truly, Fortune favors the brave!

Meanwhile the *Fram* continued her drift, and, on November 15, 1895, reached a latitude of 85° 55.5'. On the 13th of August, 1896, she released herself from the ice and was once more in open water. Her position was north of West Spitzbergen, just west of Mossel Bay. Here she anchored near the Andrée expedition off Dutch Cape, and two days later sailed for Tromsø, arriving on the 20th, and meeting the good news of Nansen's almost simultaneous return.

There can be no question as to the value of the results attained by this expedition, whether we regard the additions to our knowledge of the Polar regions, or the marvellous example of courage and endurance afforded by Nansen and his companion. They are well worth all they have cost.

The book bears evidence of the haste with which it has been put together. There is no index, not even an itinerary or table of contents. The maps, and many of the "process" cuts from photographs, are excellent; on the other hand, the drawings reproduced are rough-and-ready sketches of little merit, as a rule, and the colored plates are coarse and inartistic. It is to be regretted that hardly anything of the scientific results appears in the work except by incidental reference. Abstracts of the meteorology should at least have been in a state to print, as well as tables of soundings and dated lists of the animals observed. It has been a work of much labor to bring together even the data noted in this review, while we have seen a few quite obvious misprints in dates and figures. The book is a hasty transcript from the author's journals and little more, but it impresses us as a faithful, modest, frank, and straightforward history of one of the most remarkable arctic explorations ever made. From it much may be learned, profitable wherever man would be the master of his fate.

*Briefs for Debate on Current Political, Economic, and Social Topics.* Edited by W. Du Bois Brookings and Ralph Curtis Ringwalt.

With an introduction by Albert Bushnell Hart. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Mr. BROOKINGS is connected with the Harvard Law School, Mr. Ringwalt is assistant in Rhetoric in Columbia, Mr. Hart assistant professor at Harvard. Their book has a threefold object in view—to furnish a text-book for formal courses in public speaking and discussion, to provide a manual for literary and debating societies, and to give the wayfaring debater suggestion and assistance. It contains a vast amount of material in a small space, embracing skeleton schemes of the principal arguments pro and con on most of the important topics of the day, reinforced by working bibliographies. It might be used with advantage not merely by students, but by any debater. The basis of the volume has been a collection of some two hundred briefs prepared during the past two years by students in Harvard University under the direction of instructors. A number of new topics and a list of questions suitable for debate have been added.

To many it may seem, on a first glance, merely a new handbook in an old field; a very slight examination, however, will serve to show that it is really much more than this. Prof. Hart's introduction on the Art of Debate is an interesting account of the method of teaching debate introduced in recent years at most of our colleges and universities, which in its intercollegiate form has already aroused an interest threatening the primacy in popular favor of purely athletic contests. A century ago, disputations were part of college commencements. Down to a very recent period, public life in this country was still a school of debate, and the art of persuasion was so much "in the air" that in some quarters the undergraduate study of it was discouraged as unnecessary. At the present day, when legislative bodies are what they are, and a Speaker of the House expresses his gratitude to God that he does not preside over a deliberative body, there would be hardly any school for debate anywhere unless the colleges had revived it, and accordingly we can but look upon the new system as a most praiseworthy effort to keep alive the traditions of a noble and necessary art in an age beginning to develop forces hostile to it. Perhaps the students of this compendium may live to see the day when skill in debate will become again, as it once was, the open sesame to a political career; their study of it will, perhaps, enable them to help on this revival. We are hardly yet pessimistic enough to believe that the great universities of a country can prepare a whole younger generation for political discussion only to see their work frustrated through the continued extrusion of their graduates from political life by the agencies now dominant.

Among the many points of interest suggested by Mr. Hart's introduction we may notice the important fact that the new system of teaching debate by actual practice, under supervision (the practice constituting a training for the final public contest), is evidently one which arouses the interest of the students themselves, and this for two reasons—one, that the subjects are not of an academic nature, but are exactly the subjects which they hear discussed by their elders, and in the settlement of which they like to think of themselves as taking part; the other, that their work not only counts towards a degree, but takes the form of a contest with their natural rivals, and may end, if pains enough are taken, in victory—a foretaste of the delights of political

life itself. The subjects marked out in this volume are such that a thorough study of them will actually give the student not mere training in persuasion, but a great amount of actual knowledge as well. Any young man, once thoroughly equipped as the conscientious pursuit of this method would equip him, need fear to meet no one in honorable debate before an impartial audience. People often express wonder at the mysterious skill which trained forensic advocates show in presenting a case—sometimes after a surprisingly brief study of the facts. It is precisely by such training as that recommended in this volume that they acquire their facility.

One of the great difficulties which most young speakers have to contend with is self-consciousness. Mr. Hart gives the only key to a cure by pointing out that the way to forget yourself is to so saturate your mind with the importance of the point you desire to sustain, and the facts which you rely on, that your connection with them and relation to them sinks into the background. Finally, the golden rule of persuasion is to say only what you believe. In the long run you can persuade no one of that of which you are not persuaded yourself.

*A Handbook of Greek Sculpture.* By Ernest Arthur Gardner, M. A., etc., Yates Professor of Archaeology in University College, London. Part II. Macmillan Co. 1897.

THE second and concluding part of Prof. Gardner's 'Handbook of Greek Sculpture' is entitled to the same praise that was accorded in these columns less than a year ago to Part I. It is the work of a well-schooled expert, cautious in temper and independent in judgment. It is concise, yet thoroughly readable, and its half-tone illustrations are uniformly good. In this short handbook we have for the first time in English a thoroughly competent history of Greek sculpture.

Naturally, with some of Prof. Gardner's conclusions we are disposed to take issue. His account of the so-called Venus Genetrix of the Louvre may be singled out for consideration because of the typical importance of the question involved. This statue is admittedly not an original work, but merely one of many practically identical copies of a lost original. The question is, To what period did the original belong? Prof. Gardner says (p. 507): "Everything is in favor of the attribution of this statue to Arcesilaus." Arcesilaus was a Greek sculptor who worked in Rome in the time of Julius Cæsar, and who is known to have made the cult-image for Cæsar's temple to Venus Genetrix, i. e., Venus the ancestress of the Julian gens. But the sculptor, according to Prof. Gardner's view, borrowed the type of his image from some much earlier Greek statue, modernizing it to suit the taste of his own day. The contrary view, to which we hold, is that the Louvre statue and its numerous duplicates are intentionally faithful copies of an Attic original of the latter part of the fifth century B. C. The only positive evidence in favor of Arcesilaus is afforded by certain imperial coins, on which a Venus occurs corresponding to the statue in question and accompanied by the legend "Veneri Genetrix." But then, other quite different types occur with the same legend; so that this evidence evaporates. On the other hand, the existence of terracotta figurines from Myrina having the same motive as the Louvre statue, and manufactured probably as early as the time of Arcesilaus, if not earlier,

points to an original of the good Greek period; and the pose, the drapery, and the head of the Louvre statue seem to us to find their proper place in the generation immediately succeeding Phidias; due allowance being made for the inevitable imperfection of the copy.

This, however, is a matter of opinion, not of demonstration. We have noted a few points which call for correction. In the enumeration of important copies of the Diadumenus of Polyclitus on p. 329 the Madrid copy should surely have been mentioned. The head of the Petworth Amazon is spoken of on p. 337 as if it belonged to its figure, whereas Furtwängler, supported by Loeschke and Kalkmann, has alleged evidence to the contrary. If Prof. Gardner has any new light on the matter, he ought to communicate it. It would be interesting, also, to know by what process so careful an investigator has reached the conclusion, implied on p. 364, that the leaning Satyr of the Capitoline Museum is copied from that Satyr of Praxiteles which stood in the Street of the Tripods at Athens; the identification being one of those hypotheses in which, as a rule, Prof. Gardner sternly refuses to put his faith. In his account of the Praxitelean basis from Mantinea he seems unacquainted with the valuable monograph on the subject by Ame-lung; else he would hardly say (p. 366) that the three extant slabs "were evidently placed side by side on the front of the basis." Ame-lung has shown to a demonstration that this is impossible, and that in fact the two slabs with the Muses belonged on the two sides of the basis. Finally, why does Prof. Gardner assert so positively on p. 501 that the inscription *Αρχιανδρου ιππων* on the Florentine duplicate of the Farnese Hercules is a modern forgery? Loewy suspended judgment on the question, and now that Michaelis has withdrawn his objections, the case for the defence seems overwhelming.

The points mentioned in the last paragraph are of trifling consequence. It is a pleasure to be able to recommend almost without qualification a book on a subject which has been much at the mercy of the incompetent and the reckless.

*Histoire des Relations Littéraires entre la France et l'Allemagne.* Par Virgile Rossel. Paris: Fischbacher. 1897. 8vo, pp. 532.

THERE are good reasons for keeping account of international indebtedness in literature, art, and culture in general, even though the time for balancing such accounts can never come. Prof. Rossel of the University of Bern, therefore, deserves our gratitude for digesting and summarizing the work of his predecessors in the same general field, and adding to it, in the purely literary line, fresh details and opinions of his own. The first part of his work, dealing with German literature in France, covers the whole ground from the earliest French epopees of Germanic origin to our own day. To be sure, the vestiges left by the German mind upon French literature previous to the middle of the eighteenth century are but few. Aside from the fact that the great instrument of literary development, the printing-press, was first established in Paris by the initiative of a German professor in the Sorbonne, there is, according to our author, a likelihood that closer investigation will reveal traces of Brandt's 'Ship of Fools' and the 'Til Eulenspiegel' in Rabelais: the etymology of *espiègle* (Ulespiègle) and *calembour* (Kalenberg) certainly points to the familiarity of the French with some of the "Volks-



bücher." The influence of Agrippa von Netelsheim's 'De incertitudine et vanitate scientiarum et artium' upon Rousseau's 'Discours sur les Sciences et les Arts' is hypothetical, though plausible; with more certainty may be traced the influence of Puffendorf in the 'Contrat Social' and the 'Confessions,' and that of Albrecht von Haller ('Die Alpen,' 1729) in the 'Nouvelle Héloïse.' M. Rossel does full justice to the important part taken by Leibniz in the evolution of French thought in the eighteenth century, and dwells with satisfaction upon the circumstance that the German philosopher received first in France the full recognition due to his genius.

But it was not till about the middle of the last century that, especially through the agency of Grimm, a more widely spread interest in German literature began to manifest itself in France. Sometimes this Philgermanic movement took rather strange and, to us, unexpected turns. That Gottsched should have been greeted as a new star by French critics seems natural enough, but some eloquent and tender pages, consecrated by Ch.-A. de Bismarck (the grandfather of the ex-chancellor) to the memory of his wife, won their most ardent admiration as well. Klopstock, for reasons not difficult to understand, enjoyed less favor than Haller and Gessner, the latter being more highly esteemed in France than in Germany (cf. also Max Koch). If Napoleon read 'Werther' at the foot of the Pyramids, he read, or had read to him, the 'Death of Abel' before Saint-Jean-d'Acre. There are reminiscences of Gessner in André Chénier. Lessing, in whose school of criticism, later on, Guizot claimed to have formed his mind, and of whose continuators Sainte-Beuve was to be one, was not at once appreciated as a dramatist, and "Miss Sara Sampson" was preferred to his masterpieces. (We are here reminded of the slow change of opinion concerning Lessing in England, as appears from the successive contributions to the *Edinburgh Review*.) The author of the 'Dramaturgy,' which was much studied in France, helped, however, to overthrow the "three unities." Wieland was of course better suited to the French taste, while Herder had to wait for a worthy introduction at the hands of Quinet and Mme. de Carlowitz, after 1825.

Of all the foreign influences which French letters have undergone since that of the ancients, Shakspeare and Goethe have been the most powerful; M. Rossel has therefore traced rather minutely the fate on French soil of nearly all the principal works of the latter. It is no doubt due to the nature of lyric poetry in general, and to that of German and of Goethe's lyrics in particular, that they have affected French poetry by gradual infiltration rather than by sudden impulses. Partly, their influence was exerted indirectly: Lamartine, Hugo, Musset, De Vigny, Sainte-Beuve, studied the English—the Lakists, Byron—and these were steeped in German lyricism. Still, more direct influences are not wanting. That Schiller's "Robbers" was more warmly received by Revolutionary France than his other dramas seems natural when it is remembered that, here again, a similar judgment prevailed in England till the advent of Carlyle. Joseph Chénier, however, imitated "Don Carlos" in his "Philippe II.," and A. Soumet spoiled it in his "Élisabeth de France." Dumas père borrowed freely from Goethe, Schiller, Kotzebue, and Iffland. Schiller's influence upon the development of the Romantic drama in France is incontestable: Lanson goes so far as to state that Mme. de Staël's chapters on

Goethe and Schiller "determined the form and the aim of the Romantic drama." It is amusing to note that Louis Napoleon, after his escape at Boulogne, translated Schiller's 'Die Ideale.'

Of periodical publications that were instrumental in popularizing German literature in France, the most important mentioned by M. Rossel are, previous to Mme. de Staël's 'De l'Allemagne,' *Les Archives Littéraires* (1804-7), and subsequently the *Globe* (1824), and, of course, the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (1831). Among the most conscientious and sympathetic interpreters, writing for the latter review, were Blaze de Bury and Saint-René Taillandier. The numerous littérateurs and scholars who have in more recent years, in feuilletons and reviews, discussed German letters for the benefit of French readers, are known to every student.

M. Rossel has collected many more noteworthy instances of filiation between modern French and German literature. We can allude only to the indebtedness of Gautier, Baudelaire, Nerval, Méndès, Richépin, and others, to Heine; to the great popularity of Hoffmann's fantastic tales and their effect upon Hugo (Quasimodo in 'Notre-Dame'), Balzac ('La Peau de Chagrin'), Musset, G. Sand, Erckmann-Chatrian; to Auerbach, "who has become a classic in France." On the other hand, we are somewhat puzzled by the statement that writers like Freytag, G. Keller, Scheffel, together with several other moderns, "seem to have nothing to say or to teach" to the French.

The second part of the work, "La Littérature Française en Allemagne," is treated similarly, but not so fully as the first. A complete index of names enhances the usefulness of the book. On page 115, P. Stapfer's 'Goethe et ses deux chefs-d'œuvre' is erroneously mentioned among works treating of "Faust."

*Architecture in Italy from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century: Historical and Critical Researches.* By Raffaele Cattaneo. Translated by the Contessa Isabel Curtis-Cholmeley in Bermani. Illustrated. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Truslove & Comba. 1896.

MR. CATTANEO'S original work, 'L'Architettura in Italia dal secolo vi. al Mille circa,' was published in 1889, and was at once recognized as a valuable addition to our scant knowledge of the epoch of which it treats. The present translation reads smoothly, and is, in general, sufficiently intelligible. It follows the text very closely, and in this minute accuracy, praiseworthy in itself, lie the shoals on which the translator's ship has struck to its injury. It appears that the translator has thought it sufficient to repeat the Italian word, or some slight modification of it, in many cases where it has seemed technical or historical, or unusual in any way; or else to render it by a wholly inaccurate English word. There was once a translation, published in America, of a charming story by Théophile Gautier, in which the phrase "un tigre à cinq griffes," and which means simply a five-franc piece, was rendered with good faith by the literal English words, to the confusion of the narrative. This would have seemed the champion blunder, and the best possible example of the great truth that one needs to know a little more than the letter of a foreign language in order to translate from it into one's own tongue. A similar blunder has been made in the second note on page 59 of the

book we are considering. Mr. Cattaneo had said of Ricci, the historian (page 46, note 2), that "l'autore prendesse un solenne granchio," and although "granchio" does mean "crab," yet the whole phrase means that he has made a terrible blunder. The translator, however, gives us, with perfect gravity, as the adequate translation of this phrase, "the author has caught a monstrous crab." This is the most amusing of the blunders, and the others are merely evidence of complete indifference to, and lack of interest in, the subject. Such are "stems" of columns used instead of "shafts," as a translation of "fusti," as on page 52, and elsewhere; "tympan" for "tympanum," a very common architectural term, whereas tympan means a musical instrument, or part of a printing-press, but has never been used in an architectural sense; "façade principal," page 58, instead of principal front or principal façade; the statement, page 53, that a church was erected "out of the city," instead of outside of the city; "St. George at Velabro," as if Velabro were a town, the Church of S. Giorgio in Velabro (a well-known church in Rome) being meant, of course; "inferior columns," where those in a lower row are meant, page 51. A very serious mistranslation is that on page 51, in the rendering, "Cornices once intended to run vertically are now placed in horizontal position," whereas the author merely states that the builders of San Lorenzo were forced to combine mouldings of different profiles, and to set horizontally cornices which were made to follow the slope (or the curve) of the tympanums. The familiar words exarch and exarchate are printed uniformly as "esarch" and "esarchate"; and our old friend Robert Guiscard wears the strange guise of Guiscardo. These instances are given to show the way in which the translation has been done by grammar and dictionary without any attempt to solve the mystery of the author's true meaning; but one is so accustomed to this sort of work that it is only once in a while that it requires special mention.

Of the book itself, there is this to be said, that the boldness of the author in contradicting the assertions of other authors as to the epoch of this or that important building of Lombardy and Tuscany is probably well supported by his own trained insight into the significance of sculpture, mouldings, handiwork, and the like, but that the reader is not assured of this; while the decided contradiction remains as apparently unauthorized as the statements of Selvatico, Cordero, and Mothes, which Mr. Cattaneo vigorously rejects and ridicules. The student is probably far better off in the hands of our present author than in those of his predecessors. His instinct as to what thing in an important church dates from the original structure of the sixth or seventh century and what from the rebuilding in the eleventh century is presumably very trustworthy indeed. One would be unwilling to assert anything to the contrary, even in a special instance, without careful observation of the building in question, and without minute comparison of the points made by the different writers who have treated of it. But there is absolutely no evidence afforded except the occasional insertion in the text of a sufficiently careful drawing of a detail. Again we say that these details confirm what we profoundly believe, namely, that Mr. Cattaneo has sufficient reason for saying what he says, at the same time that the reasons for his decisions are not arrayed with any care, and that the reader is left to compare authority with autho-

city, nearly sure which authority should prevail, but admitting all the time that there is a dispute of opinions without proof advanced. Even a full explanation of the author's reasons for his own conviction is generally lacking. This is the more to be regretted as there is seldom any documentary evidence which could be cited.

The analysis of Italian architecture under the successive influences brought to bear upon it by the work of the Byzantine empire is intelligible and interesting. The statements are to the effect that Italian art during the greater part of the 6th century and the whole of the 7th century was almost entirely barbarous, or that, indeed, there was no art in Italy during that long period. The author thinks, also, that the Lombard conquerors brought no art with them, and that the talk about their bringing life into the arts of Italy is wholly absurd. A new Byzantine influence he finds in the 8th century, but not very strong, and limited, probably, to a few towns. In the 9th and 10th centuries a good deal of native Italian art was brought into being in which the Byzantine influence was but slight. Finally, in the 10th century that splendid architecture which we know in Venice as embodied in her Byzantine palaces, and which our author calls "Neo-Byzantine," appears; and this is treated with great thoroughness.

The illustrations of the book are confined to the pictures of sculptured detail of which we have spoken already, and a few ground plans. There is not in the whole book a view of a part of an interior or part of an exterior except in two instances—Figs. 123 and 127—or of a group of columns, or of a considerable doorway or window. Capitals there are, most carefully and accurately drawn, baptismal fonts and well-curbs, and several *vere da pozzo*, a true Venetian thing, with a Venetian name, which the author Italianizes as *bocca da pozzo* and the translator calls "well kirb," "well ring," and "well head" in different places, though in Venice these are not attached to wells, but to cisterns only. If there are not large details or groups of details, still less are there general views of buildings given. The author seems to make but little of the constructional devices used, and does not date his buildings by their systems of building. In this, of course, he is right; or rather, he could not do otherwise in view of the fact that no great boldness of construction or novelty of design was shown during these sad years, and that building remained nearly in the infantile state in which the sixth century had left it. Nevertheless, the absence of any exhaustive treatment of buildings in their general grouping and arrangement, together with the lack of statements of his authority for his assertions, leaves Mr. Cattaneo's book less a final and satisfactory statement of the case than a valuable and suggestive treatise for the student to start from in his work.

*My Reminiscences.* By Luigi Arditi. Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. 314.

To the public at large, Signor Arditi is known especially as the author of the famous vocal Kiss Waltz ("Il Bacio") and as Adelina Patti's perennial conductor. Owing to his services in the latter capacity, he is the best-known (though by no means the best) Italian conductor of the last half-century. The appendix to his memoirs gives a list of more than a hundred original compositions and arrangements from his pen. More remarkable

are the lists of operas he has conducted and of the famous musicians he has known. The length of his career is illustrated by the fact that it was his privilege to conduct the first performances ever given in London of the "Flying Dutchman," "Faust," "Mignon," and "Hamlet," near one end of the list, and "Cavalleria Rusticana" and "Hänsel and Gretel" at the other end. He can print, in facsimile, personal letters from Rossini, Verdi, Gounod, Anser, and other eminent composers, singers, etc. It cannot be said that either these letters, or Signor Arditi's reminiscences, add anything of great importance to the treasures of musical history and biography, but they will make pleasant reading for those whose memories carry them back two or more decades.

Signor Arditi does not hesitate to insert a sentence like this: "The critics and papers accorded me very high praise on the occasion of my first professional visit to Russia, and the following extracts from the *Journal de St.-Petersbourg* will serve to show the esteem in which they held me," etc.; yet the vanity which he shares with all musicians—mortal as well as immortal—is nowhere obtrusive. On the other hand, he does not balk at reprinting from the comic papers caricatures in which he figures, or telling a story at his own expense. Though he lived so many years in England and America, he did not feel sufficiently acquainted with the language to write his memoirs in English, leaving the task of translating them to the Baroness von Zedlitz. On one occasion his insufficient knowledge of the language gave rise to an amusing incident. The soprano who was to sing at a concert disappointed him at the last moment. Looking about, he saw in a box a young Russian lady, well known as a good singer, so he ran up stairs and begged her to help him out. She was willing enough to sing, but asked, "How can I? I am not dressed." He persuaded her to come, nevertheless, and when she had nodded assent he hurried on to the platform and announced to the astonished public: "Ladies and gentlemen, I am happy to say that although Mlle. de Lido has nothing on, she has kindly consented to sing in place of Miss X."

It is the anecdotes about famous singers that furnish the chief interest of Signor Arditi's book. He conducted operas for nearly all the great singers of the century, from Alboni to Lilli Lehmann, the list including Sontag, Grisi, Viardot, Mario, Minnie Hauk, Nilsson, Patti, Gerster, Sembrich, Campanini, etc. Of Nilsson he says: "Like all artists, Christine Nilsson suffered from 'nerves,' and I recollect that when she came to my house to go over her parts with me, she used, while singing, to tear the trimmings and laces off her skirts by continually fingering them." To a friend who once remarked on the shapely form and whiteness of her hands she replied: "Those hands, which you are good enough to admire, have done a lot of work in their time; for remember that they are peasant's hands and were made to handle the plough." Prima donnas are supposed to be all rivalry and envy, but when Nilsson sang *Mignon* for the first time at Baden-Baden she received a card from Viardot with these words: "Avec toute son admiration pour la délicieuse 'Mignon,' and a note from Lucca saying, 'You were sublime, and it gives me the greatest pleasure to tell you so.' Arditi was an intimate friend of the Patti family, and knew Adelina from the time when, as a little girl, she astonished the world with her

vocal cords, which seemed to have been so constructed that she could not sing otherwise than beautifully. Her temperament, from childhood, was that of an artist: "She could enter the room as bright as a ray of sunshine, all smiles and sweetness; but if any one had had the misfortune to ruffle the pretty brows or thwart my Lady Wilful, her dark eyes would flash, her tiny fist would contract with anger, and clouds would speedily gather across the surface of her laughing face and burst forth in torrents of tears almost as quickly as a flash of lightning." One time, when she was "angry with the whole house," she upset the inkstand on one of Arditi's manuscripts, and smiled roguishly as she saw the ink trickling slowly on to his landlady's carpet.

Perhaps the most interesting bit of information in Arditi's Memoirs is the statement that he sold his famous Kiss Waltz, together with three other compositions, for \$350, and thought himself lucky to get that. The Paris publisher alone cleared \$80,000 out of the French copyright on that song, and the manuscript was sold in London some years ago for \$3,200.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Aldo, F. G. The Literary Year-Book. 1897. London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.25.  
 Alling-Aber, Mary R. An Experiment in Education. Harper. \$1.25.  
 Bacon's Essays. The Essays of Elia. Gulliver's Travels. Malory's Morte d'Arthur. Vols. I. and II. Florio's Montaigne, Vol. I. [The Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 50c.  
 Ball, Prof. R. S. Elements of Astronomy. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. \$2.  
 Capes, B. E. J. The Mill of Silence. Rand, McNally & Co.  
 Carey, Rosa N. Doctor Luttrell's First Patient. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.25.  
 Davis, R. H. Cuba in War Time. R. H. Russell. \$1.25.  
 Dickens, Charles. Oliver Twist. Pickwick Papers. 2 vols. [Gadsbills Edition.] Scribners. Each \$1.50.  
 Educational Music Course. Third Reader; Fourth Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. Each 40c.  
 Farquhar, Anna. The Singer's Heart. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.25.  
 Fleischmann, Prof. W. The Book of the Dairy. London: Blackie & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.  
 Gentry, T. S. Life and Immortality; or, Soul in Plants and Animals. Philadelphia: Burk & McFetridge Co. \$2.50.  
 Gerard, Dorothea. A Spotless Reputation. Appletons. \$1.  
 Harding, J. W. A Bachelor of Paris. F. T. Neely. 60c.  
 Harnden, Beatrice. Hilda Stratford: A California Story. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.25.  
 In Golden Shackles. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.25.  
 John Hopkins Morison; A Memoir. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.  
 Jenson-Rose, N. Lawns and Gardens: How to Plant and Beautify the Home Lot, the Pleasure-Ground, and Garden. Putnam. \$3.50.  
 Kelie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book. 1897. Macmillan. \$3.  
 Kingsley, Florence M. Paul, a Herald of the Cross. Philadelphia: Henry Altman.  
 Leahy, W. A. The Incendiary: A Story of Mystery. Rand, McNally & Co.  
 Lenak, W. K. James Boswell. [Famous Scots Series.] Scribners. 70c.  
 Life's Comedy. First Series. Scribners. \$1.50.  
 Mahan, Capt. A. T. The Life of Nelson. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$8.  
 Marchbank, Agnes. Ruth Farmer. Cassell Publishing Co. 50c.  
 Newman, Prof. A. H. A History of Anti-Pedobaptism. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. \$2.  
 Nicholes, E. L., and Franklin, W. S. The Elements of Physics: A College Text-Book. Vol. III. Light and Sound. Macmillan. \$1.50.  
 Palgrave, Francis T. Landscapes in Poetry, from Homer to Tennyson. Macmillan. \$2.  
 Palmer, W. Hazell's Annual, 1897. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. \$1.50.  
 Rees, Claude A. Chun Ti-Kung. His Life and Adventures. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.25.  
 Reinach, Salomon. Répertoire de la Statuaire Grecque et Romaine. Tome I. Paris: Leroux.  
 Selby-Bigge, L. A. British Moralists: Being Selections from Writers Principally of the Eighteenth Century. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.  
 Selfe, Rose E. Selections from the First Nine Books of the Cronache Fiorentine of Giovanni Villand. Translated for the Use of Students of Dante and Others. London: Constable; New York: Macmillan. \$2.  
 Skinner, C. M. Nature in a City Yard. The Century Co. \$1.  
 Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. V. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.  
 Titchener, E. B. An Outline of Psychology. Macmillan. \$1.50.  
 Vansile, E. S. Kings in Adversity. F. T. Neely.  
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